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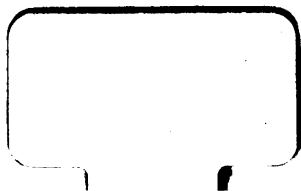
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## **MAKERS OF EUROPE**



◦

# MAKERS OF EUROPE

OUTLINES OF EUROPEAN HISTORY  
FOR THE MIDDLE FORMS OF SCHOOLS

BY

E. M. WILMOT-BUXTON

ASSISTANT MISTRESS, BRIGHTON AND HOVE HIGH SCHOOL

WITH TWELVE MAPS

SECOND EDITION

NEW YORK  
E. P. DUTTON & CO.

1905

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## INTRODUCTION

**T**HE importance of teaching foreign history in our schools is at length beginning to be fully recognised. For many years past the teacher has proceeded to instil the details of English history into the minds of his pupils, without feeling more than an occasional sense of "slurring over" such events as the Norman Conquest of England or the War in the Netherlands, with an uneasy consciousness that his class know nothing of Rollo the Northman and have the vaguest notions of Louis XIV. and the "Balance of Power." Possibly too he has been beset at times by an uncomfortable qualm that he is, all unwittingly, allowing his pupils to imbibe the magnificent theory that England alone possesses a history worth recording, and that other nations only exist in order that they may be fought with and triumphed over by her victorious arms.

That such a state of things has so long existed accounts probably for the astonishing lack of interest shown by the majority of young people in a study, which, if intelligently worked at, is full of delight and romance.

Our fellow-teachers on the Continent have, I believe, anticipated us in this matter, yet it seems as though England has an especial need of reading her own history in the light of other lands.

For her very isolation during her earlier days, and her ambition and aggressive desire of extension later on, brought her into close touch with Europe at all the turning-points of her development. So close indeed has been this connection that the greater part of her history can only be fully understood when we place it against the background of European life and progress. Who, for example, can pretend to grasp the foreign policy of Elizabeth, who does not know the past history of France and Holland? Who can account for Spain's peculiar position with regard to England in the sixteenth century if he knows nothing of the Conquest of the Moors and the Triumph of the Christian Princes?

Instances might be multiplied a hundred-fold, and will readily occur to the mind of the teacher of history. Now if a firm foundation is laid by a knowledge in outline of the main features of European history, the knotty points of England's story at once are disentangled, and the pupil looks at them in a new and more correct light. The mind trained to note the growth of the Empire of Charlemagne or the influence of Greek and Roman civilisation upon the rest of Europe will never again have a vague idea that the Saxons only came into existence in order to invade England, or that the progress of their own country was evolved, as it were, from its "inner consciousness." No longer will the Crusades inevitably call up the shade of Richard Cœur-de-Lion, nor the Hundred Years' War be regarded as a good opportunity given to English soldiers to crack the skulls of their French neighbours.

A practical experiment in the teaching of history in a Girls' High School took the following shape. In the lower Forms the chief events of English history were taught in story form, without much attempt to connect or correlate, but simply to rouse interest in the subject. In the two Middle Forms, where the girls ranged from ten to fourteen, a course of European history was studied in outline for a period of two years, each child thus getting a complete bird's-eye view of the Making of Europe. In this course, only the more striking events of each period, or those which marked a crisis in the development of each country were placed before the girls, as far as possible in brief and picturesque fashion, so as to trace a continuous line of progress from the beginning of the Greek Empire to the end of the Franco-Prussian War. A profusion of names and dates was carefully avoided, but chronological order was observed, each country was closely connected with the rest, and such points as touched the history of England were especially considered. In the three Fourth Forms a return was made to the outlines of English history, much of which now possessed an entirely new significance in the light of European affairs, and could be far more intelligently studied. After three years of this, a period of English history was generally begun, or if examinations did not press, another course of foreign history was taken for a year, consisting either of one country in detail or a revision of the ground previously covered, which now, however, was capable of being looked at from a deeper and more searching point of view, in preparation for the wider studies of later years.

In this way it was hoped that History, so often found dull and distasteful when the progress of our own nation is again and again worked through, might be more interestingly as well as more scientifically taught. Dull indeed must be the child who in after years will not feel a thrill of interest at the mention of Thermopylæ, or Archimedes, or Charlemagne or Louis XI., so often alas! mere names or isolated memories wrongly fitted, or fitted not at all into the perspective of history.

The present book aims at becoming a practical help in the teaching of European history in the Middle Forms of Schools.

At present, while many most excellent books treat of each period or country separately or in detail, there is a dearth of those which one can put into the pupils' hands for their own study and private reading. To avoid this difficulty, the teacher, having spent much time in consulting many volumes for the material for his lessons, is forced to dictate notes to be studied in preparation for the next lesson.

Every teacher knows the waste of time as well as the tiresome mistakes in names and spelling which this method involves.

This book is therefore to be used by the class in following out the teacher's lesson for themselves, a lesson which it is needless to say, will be enlarged and amplified by his own private reading and knowledge. As it has been found that with children of Middle School age, the preparation for a history lesson is apt to be vague and without method, a summary has been supplied at the end of each, which, it is suggested, should be committed to memory after a revision of the matter which has been the subject of the previous lesson. To test this preparation a series of questions have been added, most of which (in the case of those marked *A*) are meant to be answered and corrected in class during the first few minutes of the lesson. Those marked *B* are designed for the use of older pupils, who having taken a three years' course of English history, are revising their European history before beginning the study of a period.

I have also added, where it seemed useful, the names of stories or accounts of the time by noted authors, which the pupils might be recommended to read at home, a practice which has always been found to raise fresh interest in the subject. Many of the lessons themselves will be found to be too long to be given at one time. They can easily be divided and spread over two or more instructions, the whole course being designed to fill about two years,



at the rate of one long, or two short lessons a week. Geography is quite inseparable from this kind of history teaching, and the Map is supposed to be before the class on every occasion, and to be referred to constantly during the lesson.

Finally I must express my sense of obligation to the many writers whose works have helped me in compiling this little book ; and my very special thanks are due to Mrs J. R. Green for her kindness in reading my proofs, and whose lecture on the subject, given some years ago, was the inspiration of this attempt.

E. M. W.-B.

BRIGHTON AND HOVE HIGH SCHOOL,  
*May 1902.*

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# EPOCH I

## RISE AND FALL OF ANCIENT GREECE

### CHAPTER I

#### THE EARLY GREEK WORLD—SPARTA AND ATHENS

800-490 B.C.

**M**ANY years before what is known as "History" was made or written, a great emigration movement began among the people crowded together in a certain part of Central Asia. These emigrant tribes, following the curious instinct which makes men turn towards the setting sun for their new abodes, made their way westward through the continent which is now called Europe.

Now on the map of Europe you will find three clearly cut peninsulas jutting into the southern sea. Each of these in turn has played a prominent part in the history of the world; but it is of the race which settled in that which lies nearest to Asia that we have the earliest knowledge, and thus we may say that the History of Europe begins with that of Greece.

In every country it has been found that the geography of the land has much to do with the character of its inhabitants. If we study the map of Greece we shall find three very well-marked features.

First, we have mountains in every direction—running from north to south, and from east to west, forming high walls of defence round isolated plains or valleys.

It is easily seen what effect that will have upon the mutual intercourse of the inhabitants of the cities which, built on the level, or on the sea-coast, are thus shut off by these lofty heights from their neighbours.

## 2 RISE AND FALL OF GREECE

Secondly, we find that, owing to the shape of the peninsula, no part of Greece is very far from the sea. Moreover the sea itself—the blue *Ægean*—is full of islands, offering tempting harbours or easy stepping-stones for expeditions to the coast of Asia Minor, or to the corn-producing fields that lie to the north of the *Euxine*.

Where then will you expect to find the most important trade-cities? And how does this account for the fact that the western coast of Asia Minor was lined with Greek colonies?

Thirdly, we know that the climate, on which so much of man's happiness depends, is delightfully warm and healthy, everywhere tempered by the sea breeze and mountain air. Always blue sky and sweet soft winds—no hard winters or rough blasts to brace or discourage. And so the Greek youth, nurtured in such a climate, worshipped beauty in every form, loved out-door life and games, and drank in the freshness of the upper air with every movement of his free untrammelled limbs. To this source we may look also for the curious fickleness and waywardness of character which we shall find so often recurring in the history of Athens and of Northern Greece.

For it is the privations and difficulties of daily life that make men resolute and firm.

So the Geography of Greece tells us that the cities were isolated to such a degree that anything like a government by one king was an impossibility. The men of Thebes knew as little of the Corinthians, and had as little in common with them, as Parisians have with the inhabitants of St Petersburg; and thus each state, with its chief city or cities, had a government of its own.

Next we found that many of the most important cities were situated on the coast; and especially on the East Coast, looking towards the islands of the *Ægean* and the riches of Asia; and that many important colonies lay along the coast of the latter country.

Lastly, that this country produced a race of finely-made, clean-limbed men and women, trained by their surroundings to an ideal of beauty which was soon to manifest itself in art and poetry.

**Early Greek Life.**—The heroic Age of Greece, which precedes actual history, is painted for us by the poet Homer, in

## EARLY GREEK WORLD, 800-490 B.C. 3

the two great poems, the "Iliad" and the "Odyssey," which were either written by him, or compiled from various other writers. Nothing can ever be quite so delightful as to read them in the original Greek, but until you can do that, you can read many of the stories which he tells, of Achilles and Agamemnon, of Iphigenia and wily Ulysses, which have been put into English.

Homer himself is said to have been not only blind but a beggar, winning his daily bread by reciting scenes from his poems to groups of listeners gathered round him by the wayside. For poems were not written down or printed in the year 1000 B.C. Men learnt them by heart by frequent repetition, and kept their libraries in their heads instead of on shelves.

When he died, seven great Greek cities claimed the honour of burying him, although in his lifetime they had cared nothing for him ; as says the old rhyme,

"Seven wealthy cities contend for Homer dead,  
Through which the living Homer begged his bread."

**Sparta and Athens 800-700 B.C.**—The two great powers of Historic Greece were Sparta and Athens.

Sparta was the chief centre of Peloponnesus, Athens of Central Greece. Sparta is the first to show a system of laws and of government, when confusion was ruling in most Greek states. The country of Laconia, of which Sparta was the capital, had from very early times been ruled by two kings, who were always quarrelling with one another, and thus the land was never at peace. A great law-giver, called Lycurgus, at length arose, and declared that Apollo had sent this message to the Spartans: "Build temples to Zeus and Athene; arrange the people in tribes; establish a senate; summon assemblies of the people, who are to have the determining voice." Thus order arose amid confusion, and a strictly limited monarchy was established.

The noted Spartan "training" was also set on foot by Lycurgus. When a boy was born, he was taken away from his mother and brought before the senate, who tested his strength. Sometimes he would be thrown upon a rough sloping roof. If he managed to cling to it, he was returned to his parents to be brought up. If he fell, or seemed weakly, he was cast out on to a slope of a neighbouring mountain, to die of exposure. When he was seven years old, he was placed in a public training-home, made to go barefoot, to sleep on a bed of rushes, and to endure cold and



## 4 RISE AND FALL OF GREECE

hunger. He was allowed, even encouraged to add to his scanty meals by theft, but was severely beaten if he was clumsy enough to be detected. Endurance was the aim of all his education, and this was tested each year by a most cruel scourging, before the altar of Artemis, until the altar was stained with his blood. Music was the only relaxation allowed him in the midst of his purely physical education. At twenty, the youth was sent to live in barracks, fed upon barley-meal, figs, cheese, and "black broth," and only allowed these if he had been able to send in a share of the provisions. The training was still extremely severe; home-life scarcely existed; the one idea was to make a perfect soldier, so that it was said that "The Spartan's life was made so unbearable to him that it was no wonder that he threw it away without regret in battle."

The education of girls was on the same lines, but they were not taken from their mothers. They were made to take part in every form of physical exercise; gentleness and modesty were discouraged, so that they grew up to be the women who, on the occasion of a famous battle in which many Spartans had lost their lives, shed tears of shame if by chance a husband or brother had returned unhurt.

The constitution of Athens came some years later. Ruled at first by nobles, she was rent in two by their selfish quarrels, while "tyrants," as nobles were called when they tried to seize the chief power, were continually grasping at the reins of government.

Draco, the earliest reformer, proposed as a remedy a code of laws so severe that they were said to be written in blood, not ink. When death was the penalty for almost every offence, men grew callous. Debts increased; free-born citizens sold themselves, their wives and daughters in payment, until a new reformer arose. Solon, the wisest law-giver of Greece, made three notable reforms. He removed all burdens of debt, and thus gave every man a fresh start. He restored the power of the people, thus laying the foundation of the Athenian democracy, and he instituted a definite coinage.

But tyrants still existed after the days of Solon. One called Peisistratus was a great Master Builder. He began to build the great temple of Zeus, which was not completed for many years; he encouraged literary men to settle at Athens, and improved the condition of the poorer classes. Cleisthenes, the Friend of the

## EARLY GREEK WORLD, 800-490 B.C. 5

People, succeeded to his power and influence, and in a short time established a democracy in Athens, on a firm basis. To prevent the setting up of a tyrant, he invented the plan of Ostracism. For, if any one threatened the liberty of the state in any way, a meeting of citizens was held; and if six thousand "pot-sherds" or "*ostraka*" were cast into the voting-urn against that one man's name, he was exiled for ten years. Thus, without any particular slur or injury to himself, one who had been trying to gain undue influence in the city, was quietly removed from the scene of action until his name was practically forgotten.

In this way the two great states of Athens and Sparta were established. In the course of Greek History we shall see them once joined hand to hand against a common foe, rejoicing in their victorious strength; but from that time, opposed to one another in bitter enmity, causing the downfall of their country's liberty.

### SUMMARY.—CHAPTER I.

- I. *Geography of Greece.*  
Effect on States, Colonies, Character.
- II. *The Heroic Age.*  
Homer. The Iliad. The Odyssey.
- III. *The Two Great Powers of Greece.*  
*Sparta.*—The constitution of Lycurgus.  
Spartan training.  
*Athens.*—The Laws of Draco.  
Solon the Law-giver.  
Peisistratus—Tyrant and Builder.  
Cleisthenes the Democrat.  
Democracy established.—*Ostracism.*  
*Read.*—"Stories from Homer" (Prof. Church).  
"The Heroes" (Ch. Kingsley).

### QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER I.

- A 1. Who were the following men, and for what was each notable :—  
Homer, Draco, Lycurgus, Solon, Peisistratus, Cleisthenes?
2. What effects had the geography of Greece upon the inhabitants and cities of the land?
- B 1. Write a brief account of Spartan training and education, and compare or contrast it in any point with the education of the present day.

## CHAPTER II

## THE PERSIAN INVASION

490-480 B.C.

We saw in the last lesson that many important Greek colonies had been planted along the coast line of Asia Minor. Each of these was ruled over by its own particular "tyrant," but in the course of years, a very distinct form of government began to be exercised over them by the great "King of the Medes and Persians," of whose successors Darius was the most noteworthy in his attempt to draw the reins of government tighter. Liberty was, however, the highest ideal of these Greek cities. They determined to rebel against Darius, and to this end sought the help of the mother-country.

Sparta waited but to hear that the expedition might be obliged to march ninety days inland, and then drove the envoys from the kingdom, saying they must be mad to imagine that a Spartan would endure existence so far from the sea. But Athens at once sent help, which was so effectual that Sardis, the chief city of Darius, was burnt to the ground. But there was no clear plan of mutual aid between the Greek cities of Asia. Their tyrants quarrelled, their attempts were made independently of one another; and when Darius had recovered from the fit of stupefied rage into which he had fallen on hearing of their audacity, he turned upon them and exacted a bitter penalty, putting most of them to the fire and sword, and selling the inhabitants as slaves. His fury, however, was still further kindled against Athens, their abettor. He is said to have given orders to his cup-bearer to say in his ear three times a day as he sat at meals, "Master, forget not the Athenians!", and to have determined that his revenge should take the form of bringing the whole of Greece under Persian rule.

**The Expedition to Greece.**—Forthwith heralds were sent to Greece, who demanded from each state earth and water as a token of submission to the Persian monarch. Some of the smaller states gave what was required, in trembling awe of the renowned enemy; but at Athens the envoys were thrown into a well, at Sparta into

Map 1.

# ANCIENT GREECE

Statute Miles  
0 10 20



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## 8 RISE AND FALL OF GREECE

a pit, from whence they were bidden to take as much earth and water as they wished.

Darius at once fitted out an armament for the destruction of these cities. This, however, was wrecked on the promontory of Mount Athos, and the remnant returned to Asia.

A second expedition sailed across the *Ægean*, and attacked Eretria, which fell in six days, owing to the treachery of certain of its citizens. The inhabitants of this town were put in chains and the city utterly destroyed. Such was the warning example set before the eyes of Athens and Sparta. The huge Persian army then crossed to Attica, and drew up in line on the plains of Marathon.

**Marathon, 490 B.C.**—On hearing the fate of Eretria, the Athenians had sent to ask the help of Sparta. This was delayed by the condition of the moon; for the superstitious Spartans refused to start until the moon was full. Of the ten Athenian generals, five wished to await the coming of the Spartans, but the rest, dominated by the opinion of one Miltiades, an able and energetic soldier, desired to fight at once.

Miltiades' counsel prevailed, and the comparatively small Greek army was quickly drawn up in a valley facing the plain, in which the Persians were placed with the sea at their back, a marsh on one side, and a river on the other. What were the disadvantages of such a position?

In spite of the disparity of numbers, the battle, owing to the brilliant generalship of Miltiades, was a brilliant success for Greece. The Persians were driven back in hopeless disorder to their ships. Thousands were left dead on the field.

**Effect on Greece.**—The "day of Marathon" became the most glorious of Greek triumphs. For the first time, the Greeks had conquered the invincible Persians in open fight. If it had gone against them, Greece must have become a mere province of Persia, and the history of the world would have been changed.

Miltiades became such a hero that the Athenians gladly granted a request, made soon after the conquest of the Persians, that he might be given seventy ships for a private purpose, which he promised should enrich the state. But the General, crafty and deceitful, in spite of the courage and genius that one admires in the hero of Marathon, used the Athenian fleet to attack the island of Paros, in order to take vengeance on the

## THE PERSIAN INVASION, 490-480 B.C. 9

citizens for a private affront. He was unsuccessful, received a wound in the thigh, and was forced to return to Athens. Here an enemy accused him of deceiving the people, and he was brought into court on a couch in order to plead. Lying there like a wounded lion, he reminded the Athenians of what he had done at Marathon. But the fickle people were weary of him, and it was with difficulty that his sentence of death was remitted to that of a heavy fine. Worn out with pain and anger at their ingratitude, the conqueror at Marathon lay down and died.

**Xerxes' Expedition.**—Death prevented Darius too from exacting the total extinction of the Athenian power, the only penalty that would atone for the defeat of the Persians. But such a penalty was left a solemn legacy to his son Xerxes, who proceeded to gather together a vast host, from all the kingdoms over which he held rule. Great preparations were made for the journey to Greece. A bridge of boats was thrown across the Hellespont, the strength of which was secured by the instant execution of the engines if anything went wrong; and a canal was cut across the dangerous promontory of Mount Athos.

Thus secured from wind and weather, Xerxes marched, with an army so huge that most of the cities through which he passed were brought to the brink of ruin by having to provide rations for them, through Northern Greece, receiving no check till he reached the Pass of Thermopylæ.

**Leonidas.**—Meantime preparations were being made in Greece. Sparta, determined not to be behindhand, as on the last occasion, undertook to defend the Pass of Thermopylæ, which formed the one means of ingress to Southern and Middle Greece. But once again they were delayed by the rites of a festival, and only three hundred Spartans, with a larger number of allies, all under Leonidas, the Spartan king, came forward for the defence. The Persian king laughed at the notion of the pass being held by such a tiny band, and sent to bid them give up their arms.

"Come and take them," replied Leonidas.

A trembling scout, sent out to reconnoitre, brought back word that the Persian host was so great that their arrows would conceal the sun.

"So much the better: we shall fight in the shade," was the unmoved answer.

From his throne upon the mountain side, Xerxes gnashed

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his teeth to see one body of soldiers after another, even his Ten Thousand "Immortals," the flower of the Persian band, dashed back from the narrow entrance, or blocking it with their corpses.

But treachery prevailed. Ephialtes, the Spy, betrayed his countrymen by showing a road over the mountain, that would lead to the rear of the pass. The betrayal was quickly made known, and most of the allies escaped, but Leonidas and his Three Hundred remained at their post, selling their lives dearly at the mouth of the pass.

The way to Athens was now open. Acting upon the advice of Themistocles, who had succeeded Miltiades in the post of command, the Athenians hurriedly left their city and fled to Ægina or Salamis. The Persian army forthwith fell upon the city and destroyed it; but Themistocles encouraged the fugitives by reminding them that the oracle had said that their safety would lie "in wooden walls,"—evidently a reference to their fleet.

**Salamis.**—The huge Persian fleet, numbering more than one thousand vessels, now appeared off the coast. Much discussion arose between the Spartan leaders and the Athenians as to where they should join issue with the Persians. The former wished to put the land forces together and attack by land; the latter, led by Themistocles, were determined on a naval battle. Insults were poured upon Themistocles, but he stood firm. One Spartan general even raised his stick against him.

"Strike, but hear me!" cried the dauntless leader, who went on to declare that if they would not fight by sea, he would sail away with the fleet to found a new Athens in Italy. The matter was settled by the discovery that the Persian fleet had surrounded the bay, and that escape was impossible.

A terrific fight ensued. The great Persian ships, as in the case of the Spanish Armada, were too close to one another to move about; many of them wrought damage on each other. At nightfall the advantage lay entirely with the Greeks, who were preparing to continue the contest next day, when they found that the cowardly Xerxes, dreading the worst, had drawn off the remaining vessels, and had fled back to Asia by night.

This defeat utterly discouraged the weak and worthless Persian king. One more attempt he allowed his generals to make; but this time a Spartan general, Pausanias, came to the forefront and defeated the Persian army at Platæa. Henceforth

## GOLDEN AGE OF GREECE, 480-480 B.C. 11

Greece was free from Persian aggression. She had learnt her own strength as the successful adversary of the dreaded monarchs of the East.

### SUMMARY.—CHAPTER II.

- I. *The Greeks in Asia.*  
Ruled by Darius. Their revolt. Athens aids them.  
Failure of revolt. Revenge of Darius.
- II. *Expeditions against Greece.*  
The first expedition wrecked.  
Second Expedition. Fate of Eretria.  
Miltiades leads the Athenians at Marathon, 490.  
Victory of Marathon. Effect on Greece.  
End of Miltiades.
- III. *Expedition of Xerxes.*  
Leonidas and the Pass of Thermopylæ.  
Destruction of Athens.
- IV. *Battle of Salamis.*  
Themistocles—the Athenian general.  
The battle—result for Greece.

### QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER II.

- A 1. Name the three decisive battles of the Persian War, with the Greek leader in each.
2. What were the causes, general and immediate, of the Persian invasion of Greece?
- B 1. Write an account of the keeping of the Pass of Thermopylæ, and compare it with any modern historical event of the same kind.

## CHAPTER III

### THE GOLDEN AGE OF GREECE

480-430 B.C.

During the fifty years that followed the battle of Salamis, the Greeks, though never entirely at peace, were relieved from the dread of Persia which had always overshadowed them hitherto, and had leisure to think, to develop, to study, and to invent.

**Supremacy of Athens.**—At Athens, Themistocles set on foot his favourite plan of rendering that city Mistress of the Sea, by fortifying her harbour, and by building many new ships. The allied Ionian states of Asia and the Ægean rebelled just at that



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time against the insolence of Pausanias, the Spartan general, and offered Athens the supremacy over their great fleet. She eagerly accepted it, and found herself at once the leader of the Greek states, supreme by sea and land. But although this was almost entirely due to Themistocles, the same treatment was meted out to him as to Miltiades. Wearied by his self-congratulations and not unnatural pride, the citizens ostracised him. Shortly after, his enemies accused him of sharing in the treason of Pausanias, who had been bribed by Persian gold to betray his country.

At that time the accusation was probably not true, but the injustice had the unworthy result of making Themistocles resolve to give them good ground for their charge. He was forced to flee to the territory of an ancient enemy, and sank, worn out, before his dwelling. The king himself was absent, but his wife, pitying his wretched condition, put her child into his arms, and bade him sit beside the hearth and ask for mercy from her husband. The latter showed himself of nobler mettle than the fickle Greeks; for when he heard his old enemy begging him to pity a fallen foe, he freely gave him refuge, protected him from his pursuers, and helped him to proceed to Persia; where after laying before the Persian king a magnificent scheme for the destruction of his mother-country, he died.

**Greek Drama.**—In these years of comparative peace and plenty, the dramatic art of Greece began to attain its most perfect form. These "plays" had their origin in the religious services of the land. It was the custom to worship Dionysius, the god of wine and fruit and all good produce of the earth, with songs and choruses sung by a chosen band of youths, who danced round his altar, recounting the story of the god. The leader of the chorus took the part of Dionysius himself. Gradually other characters were introduced, and the stories of other gods and goddesses were sung. One development of this became "Tragedy" (Gk. *tragos*, a goat): so called, because the sacrifice of a goat was an essential part of the performance, while the subject dealt with the sufferings of the god. Another was the "Village Song"—Comedy, full of the merriment and fun of country dances and jokes.

The next step was to introduce a dialogue between the leader and one of the chorus, called in Greek the "Answerer"

## GOLDEN AGE OF GREECE, 480-480 B.C. 13

(*hypocritos*), which afterwards had the meaning of an "actor." Then varied subjects were made the central idea, such as tales of the Heroic Age, and the myths of the past ages. By this means the religious beliefs of Greece were kept before the people, just as in the Middle Ages the English were taught by Miracle Plays.

**Æschylus.**—Æschylus has been called the Father of Greek Drama, both because of the beauty and pathos of his plays, and because of the improvements which he made in the drama. One of these was to introduce a second actor, and another to make his characters appear of "heroic" size by making them wear very thick soled boots or "buskins."

**Sophocles.**—Sophocles, the rival of Æschylus, was noted even as a boy for his beauty, grace and skill in music. He was chosen, as a lad of fifteen, to sing the choral ode of thanksgiving after the victory at Salamis.

At the close of his long life his unnatural sons, wishing to grasp his little property, accused him of being out of his mind. He was brought before a court to be tested, and his only reply to the questions put to him was, "If I am Sophocles, I am not beside myself; and if I am beside myself, I am not Sophocles." Then taking up a work he had just completed, he read a passage of such beauty that the judges at once declared they wished all men were as sane as he.

One of his most pathetic plays is the "Antigone," which, until you can enjoy it in Greek, you must be satisfied to read in English form.

**Socrates.**—To this period, and overlapping the next, belongs one of the most commanding figures of Greek thought and literature, though he wrote nothing himself. Suppose you were walking down an Athenian street somewhere about the year 489 B.C. An odd figure is advancing towards you, that of a singularly ugly man, flat-nosed, thick-lipped, with prominent eyes, his awkward figure wrapped in a shabby cloak. He is talking as he walks with his eyes on the ground, and gradually a little band of young men gathers round him and listens to his words with the keenest attention. It is Socrates the Philosopher, who goes about the whole day through the market-place, the schools, the "gymnasia," talking to, and instructing by word of mouth all those who care to hear his words of wisdom.

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His "Method" of teaching has always been considered the best in the world. Instead of merely *telling* people what they ought to know, he made them, by a series of skilful questioning, discover it for themselves.

As a philosopher, too, he looked beneath the surface of things and saw the superstitions and errors that governed Greek thought and religion, and instead of seeking advice or help from Zeus or Athene, he believed that an inward voice—the voice of a Spirit or "Genius," as it was called in those days, was his director and guide. Not that he wished to put himself forward as a destroyer of accepted belief, for no one was more retiring than he. On one occasion a friend enquired of the oracle at Delphi as to who was the wisest man in Greece. The answer gave the palm to Socrates. But the philosopher could not believe this, saying that he knew he had no wisdom at all. To test the matter, a certain statesman who had a very high reputation for wisdom was brought to him, and according to his method, Socrates questioned him until he found that he did not even know what true wisdom meant. But of this he could not possibly convince the man. "Then," said Socrates, "the oracle was right. For these so-called wise men only *think* they know everything; whereas I *know* that I know nothing."

Such frankness as this was not safe in Athens. Many enemies rose up against Socrates. He was accused of not worshipping the national gods, and was condemned to death.

For thirty days he lay in prison, teaching to the last, and welcoming death with the firm courage of a true philosopher. Just before he drank the fatal cup of hemlock, he bade farewell to his friends, saying cheerfully—

"It is time for us both to go—you to life, I to death. And which of the two is best is known only to the gods."

Thus did Athens sacrifice not only her generals, her statesmen, but also her men of wisdom to the opinion of the passing hour. The Golden Age was passing fast away and troubled days were in store for Greece.

### SUMMARY.—CHAPTER III.

- I. *The Golden Age of Greece.*—Fifty years after Salamis.
- II. *Supremacy of Athens obtained by Themistocles.*  
Exile of Themistocles. His end.

# THE GREAT CIVIL WAR, 430-405 B.C. 15

## III. *Development of Greek Drama.*

Tragedy and Comedy.  
Æschylus. Sophocles.

## IV. *Socrates, the Greek Philosopher.*

His method. His "Genius."  
Charges brought against him. His Death.

### QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER III.

*A* 1. For what is the Golden Age of Greece notable?

2. Name some famous Greek writers.

*B* 1. Write an account of the work and "method" of Socrates, comparing it with the modern educational methods.

*Read.*—Stories from the Greek Tragedians (Church).

## CHAPTER IV

### THE GREAT CIVIL WAR OF GREECE

430-405 B.C.

A period now begins in Greece, during which we find the two great states of Sparta and Athens, so strong when they fought side by side against a foreign foe, tearing to shreds the life and strength that was in them, when they faced each other in hostile array.

The cause of this great conflict was jealousy, that paltry feeling which has already appeared so often in the treatment shown to their best and finest men. And this jealousy was stirred up mainly against Athens.

**Pericles.**—During the Golden Age of Greece, a youth named Pericles had grown to manhood in the company of philosophers and men of learning. He had all the genius of Themistocles, without the latter's vanity and boastfulness; silent and reserved by nature, he yet possessed a gift of oratory which few could surpass.

When circumstances made him leader of the people of Athens, he set his face steadfastly to accomplish that which Themistocles had begun. Athens was to become Mistress of Greece; all other states—even the proud Spartans—were to become her subordinates.

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Her fleet, therefore, was increased and strengthened. Her connection with the port of Peiræus was established by the building of the "Long Walls," which formed a perfectly protected passage between the city and the sea.

Her empire was extended by the exercise of such authority over the coast and island towns of Asia Minor and the Ægean, that instead of being her allies, they found themselves her tributaries. Many new colonies were also planted, and thus her dominion was widely enlarged. Within the city itself great activities were set on foot. The good seed sown in the Golden Age was bringing forth fruit in an intellectual and artistic growth, which enabled Pericles to find men ready to his hand for the building of noble palaces and temples, and for the decoration of the same. Within a very few years Athens became the most beautiful city in the world, filled with the treasures of Greek art for which she is still famous. Such rapid growth could not take place unnoticed by the many unfriendly eyes outside.

Sparta was the first to show ill-feeling towards her great rival. No opportunity was lost of turning the arrogance or tactlessness of Athens to account. Corinth and Thebes sided with Sparta. A Congress of States was held to consider many grievances, which they maintained had been thrust upon them, and war was threatened unless Athens would humble herself, and withdraw most of the vexatious restrictions which she had put upon neighbouring states. Moreover, ill-feeling was stirred up against Pericles himself, within the very walls of the Athens he had created. He was attacked through his friend Pheidias the sculptor, who had been employed by him to make a great ivory statue of Athene, overlaid with fine gold. A portion of this gold was said to have been used for private purposes by both Pheidias and Pericles; and once more we see the Athenians, always ready to take up some new thing, even if it be an accusation against their greatest benefactor, listening to the charge with approval. Fortunately, the gold had been so laid on that it could be removed with ease, and this being done, an appeal to the scales promptly showed the total want of ground for the accusation. Yet Pheidias on a frivolous charge of having introduced portraits of himself and Pericles into the frieze of the Parthenon, was thrown into prison and died on the eve of trial. But in spite of the feeling stirred up against him, Pericles

## THE GREAT CIVIL WAR, 439-405 B.C. 17

held the will of the people in his hand. He was determined that war should be declared against Sparta, and a salutary lesson taught his jealous enemies. Thus the war began.

**Progress of the War.**—The beginning of this war, which was to end so disastrously for Athens, saw little accomplished but a fierce ravaging of the lands of Attica by the allied foes. As a result, the people swarmed into the city from neighbouring towns and villages, and every inch of space was crowded with their tents and dwellings. The natural result of such a sudden influx of people followed.

Within a year a terrible plague broke out in Athens. The people died by thousands, and a strong feeling arose against Pericles as being the cause of the general misery. Heartbroken at the death of his favourite son, the great Maker of Athens roamed through the doomed city, a gaunt, grief-stricken figure. Two years after war had been declared he lay down to die of the plague which had destroyed his great ideals. His friends recalled his deeds of past days. "These," said the dying statesman, "were partly the result of good fortune, and have been done by other men. My chief source of pride is this—No Athenian ever wore mourning through me."

**Pylos and Sphacteria.**—The war dragged on with little to mark it until its seventh year. At that period the Athenian fleet was detained by bad weather at Pylos on the Laconian coast. They fortified the spot, but within a short time the Spartan fleet had followed them and encamped on the island of Sphacteria, divided from Pylos by a narrow channel, and almost blocking up the entrance to the bay. Learning that nearly all the most important Spartans were upon the island, Demosthenes, the Athenian admiral, suddenly turned the tables and blockaded them in their turn. For some time the Spartans held out. They were protected by the thick woody growth of the island, and managed to maintain life on poppy-seed mixed with honey, which skilful swimmers, keeping almost entirely under water, brought them from the mainland. At length Demosthenes decided to descend upon the island, if Athens would send some reinforcements.

But this the Athenians were unwilling to do. Safe within their walls they thought they knew more about the matter than the soldier at the seat of war. One Cleon, a leather-seller, was especially noisy in his remarks, "Twould be easy enough to take

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the island, if our generals were *men*. If I were General I would do it at once." "Then go and try," answered the Athenians with a jeer; and Cleon went.

We should be glad to hear that this empty wind-bag was duly pricked, but it was not to be. Fortune favoured him. He arrived at Sphacteria at the exact moment when the undertaking could most successfully begin. A sailor had managed to set the woods on fire; but even when deprived of this protection, it took a hard day's fighting to master the handful of Spartans who held the island. It would have come to pass if Cleon had remained in Athens, but no doubt he took all the credit to himself.

The Spartans were so dismayed by the loss of so many of their best soldiers, that peace was made for a time, and the land had breathing space.

### SUMMARY.—CHAPTER IV.

- I. *Pericles—the Maker of Athens.*  
Athens becomes supreme by sea and land.  
New colonies formed. The Long Walls built.
- II. *Jealousy of Sparta, Corinth, Thebes.*  
Enmity against Pericles. Death of Pheidias.  
War declared between Athens and the Peloponnesus.
- III. Attica ravaged. The *Plague of Athens.*  
Death of Pericles, 429.
- IV. *Pylos and Sphacteria* in seventh year of War.  
Athenian fort at Pylos. Besieged by Spartans.  
Spartans besieged on Sphacteria.  
Demosthenes. The boast of Cleon.  
Spartan nobles seized. Effect on Sparta.

### QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER IV.

- A 1. What was the cause of the Peloponnesian War?  
2. What are the notable incidents in this period of the War?
- B 1. Write an account of Pericles. Discuss his claim to the title "Maker of Athens," and compare him with a great war minister of the eighteenth or nineteenth century.

# THE FALL OF ATHENS, 416-405 B.C. 19

## CHAPTER V

### THE FALL OF ATHENS

416-405 B.C.

**Alcibiades.**—The refusal of Athens to give up her position at Pylos led to the renewal of the war within a few years. A very vigorous spirit of opposition to Sparta was formed by a young man called Alcibiades, upon whom the eyes of Athens had long been fixed with mingled pride and consternation. Handsome, athletic, bold and excitable, this young Athenian loved nothing better than to hold the attention of the populace by some daring trick or eccentric action. They smiled on him when he burst into a court of law and tore up an indictment made against a poet friend; they adored him when at the great games held at Olympia when peace was made, his chariots carried off the first and second prizes.

This man now became the Athenian leader.

**Capture of Melos, 416 B.C.**—The excess to which so undisciplined a nature was sure to run was quickly seen, when just before the renewal of the war, the island of Melos, which had never owned Athenian rule, was captured. By the suggestion of Alcibiades, every man upon the island was put to death, the women and children sold into captivity; although the Melians had been in no sense the aggressors, and the attack had been made in time of peace. This terribly cruel act marks a turning-point in the war. From that time the power of Athens began to wane.

**The Expedition to Sicily.**—A new ambition now seized the fertile mind of Alcibiades, suggested by a quarrel between two Sicilian towns. A brilliant scheme of annexing all the Sicilian states by Athens took possession of him. A large fleet was prepared, placed under the command of Alcibiades and Nicias, and the start was made. The day before the fleet sailed, the Athenian world was horrified on awaking one morning, to find that during the night, all the statues of Hermes, one of which stood before every door and every public place in Athens, had been mutilated and rendered shapeless.

Such a deed showed such reckless impiety and disregard of



consequences that suspicion at once turned to Alcibiades, who hotly denied the charge. It was indeed unlikely that he would do such a thing when on the eve of undertaking his great scheme, but his many enemies pressed the point, and when investigations were made, brought to light some profanities of his which alone were enough to condemn him. Public opinion, however, was still in his favour, and the fleet set sail. But fortune was against them. Segesta, the city they were befriending, played them a trick concerning their resources, which showed how little the Athenians could depend upon them as allies. For when the envoys visited Segesta to see for themselves the wealth to be placed at their command, the small amount of plate which the city held was sent from one house to another just before the envoys arrived, so that they really always saw the same. Not discouraged by this discovery, Alcibiades pushed on and began to besiege Syracuse. But meantime from Athens a fleet vessel approached, bearing an intimation to Alcibiades that he was to return at once, and stand his trial for impiety. He promptly fled to the Peloponnesus, and hearing that in his absence he had been tried and condemned to death, he exclaimed, "I will show them that I am still alive!", and forthwith put himself into the hands of the Spartans, as their ally against his own city.

The Spartans received him with joy, and gladly acceded to his request that they would send a fleet to the aid of Syracuse.

**Fate of the Athenians.**—Meanwhile Nicias was busily trying to raise a wall that should enclose the city of Syracuse, thus cutting off supplies and aid from the inhabitants. But those on the north side were still unfinished when the Spartans arrived and made their way through.

The Athenian fort was captured, and things looked very black for the besiegers, when a fleet sent straight from Athens, under Demosthenes, sailed into the harbour. But they had come too late.

The Syracusans still held all the advantageous parts of the city; the Spartans were no slight foe to reckon with, sickness had broken out among the soldiers. The only course was to beat as speedy a retreat as possible, and this was about to take place when an eclipse of the moon occurred, and the soothsayers declared that no movement must be made until thrice nine days were accomplished.

## THE FALL OF ATHENS, 416-405 B.C. 21

This delay proved fatal. Embarking on their ships, they found themselves shut into the harbour by a line of vessels drawn across the mouth. A great sea-fight took place, in which the Athenians, beaten on every hand, were forced to retreat to the shore. But in spite of the despairing courage of Nicias, the army was surrounded and forced to surrender. The wretched Athenians were set to work in the stone quarries of Sicily, where, starving amongst their unburied dead, they perished miserably. So ended the ill-fated Sicilian Expedition, in which the flower of the Athenian army and navy perished.

**Alcibiades returns to Athens.**—A few months' experience of the wily Athenian renegade was enough to disgust Sparta. Rejected by them, the traitor fled to Persia, and there began to plot for his return to Athens by skilfully playing a double game. On pretence of its being to the advantage of Persia, formerly inclined to help Sparta, to play off one state against another by affording a certain amount of aid to Athens, he secured a promise of assistance, which he proceeded to pass on to his mother-city. But his conditions were, first, his own return in honour, and next, the ruin of the Athenian democratic constitution. Four hundred chosen men, with himself as their leader, were to rule Athens. A brief triumph over the Spartan fleet at Cyzicus once more endeared him to the hearts of his countrymen, and Alcibiades returned with glory to Athens.

But the end was near.

**End of the War. Lysander.**—The forgiveness and warm reception of the Athenians was not enough to control the selfish recklessness of this man, who might well be called the "Curse of Athens." Entrusted with great power, he used it to crush the people, ill-treat the allies, enrich himself, and finally, by committing the command of the fleet to a worthless companion while he himself went off on a marauding expedition, he brought about such a decisive defeat, that the Athenians, aware how little they could afford to endure such treatment, dismissed him from the city. But it was too late to save Athens. One defeat followed another, till one fatal day, when Lysander, the Spartan leader, a man unscrupulous, but full of power, sailed up the *Ægean* to the Hellespont, and faced the Athenian fleet at *Ægospōtami*. In vain did the men of Athens strive to bring him to an engagement. In vain did Alcibiades, now living in

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that region, try to persuade his fellow-countrymen to choose a less defenceless position. Experience had taught them the worthlessness of his advice, but for once he was right.

Grown careless through the seeming cowardice of the Spartans, the Athenians left their ships unguarded; whereupon Lysander, who had been waiting for this opportunity, fell upon them and utterly destroyed the whole Athenian fleet.

There was no more fighting strength in Athens. A miserable surrender was made. Her Long Walls were cast down, her ships of war, and all foreign possessions given up, and she was forced to call herself an ally of the hated Sparta.

**End of Alcibiades.**—Thus came about the fall of that great city, which Themistocles and Pericles had built up, and which Alcibiades had ruined.

The traitor himself had fled again to Persia, rightly distrusting the temper of the conquerors of Athens. But from Sparta came forth a stern mandate that Alcibiades was to be put to death. Accordingly, his house was set on fire, and he, as he rushed forth with his wonted courage in singlehanded combat, perished before the Persian javelins.

### SUMMARY.—CHAPTER V.

- I. *Alcibiades—the "Curse of Athens."*  
Capture of Melos. Treatment of inhabitants.  
The turning point in the War.
- II. *The Expedition to Sicily.*  
Mutilation of the Hermæ. Charges against Alcibiades.
- III. *Siege of Syracuse.* Spartan aid.  
Fate of the Athenians.
- IV. *The Return of Alcibiades to Athens.*  
Persian aid secured. Battle of Cyzicus won by Athens.
- V. *End of the War.*  
Lysander wins Battle of Ægospotami, 405 B.C.  
Ruin of Athens.  
Fate of Alcibiades.

### QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER V.

- A 1. What events are connected with Melos, Segesta, Syracuse, Cyzicus, Ægospotami?
2. Who were Lysander, Nicias, Alcibiades?
- B 1. Trace the harm done to Athens by Alcibiades. Compare his character with that of an English statesman who in any way resembled him.

# DOWNFALL OF GREECE, 405-338 B.C. 23

## CHAPTER VI

### THE DOWNFALL OF GREECE

405-338 B.C.

**Effect of the War.**—The effect of the Peloponnesian War was to render Greece poor, weak, and liable to attack from any foreign enemy. She had lost money, men, and prestige, and had gained nothing but a temporary supremacy for Sparta. If Persia had wished to make the attempt, Greece would have fallen an easy prey to the force of her arms; but the former was content with a half-hearted assertion of a right to settle matters of dispute, for at this time she had lost much of her former strength, and was, moreover, herself engaged in internal wars.

**The Retreat of the Ten Thousand.**—With one of these wars the men of Greece were much concerned.

Cyrus, the younger brother of Artaxerxes the king, had determined to make an attempt to conquer the latter in battle, and to seize the crown himself. He had watched the contest between Athens and Sparta to such good purpose that he knew the advantages of having Greek, rather than Persian soldiers at his back, so he set about raising an army, under the pretence of making an attack upon the tribes of Central Asia. There was little difficulty in getting men to follow him, for the peace had left many a Greek soldier out of employment, and the ruined state of trade caused men to become soldiers to earn their bread. In a short time he had raised an army of ten thousand Greeks, and these he led by a long march through Asia Minor towards the eastern part of the Empire.

Suspicion began to be raised, but not until they reached the Euphrates did Cyrus declare that his object was to attack Babylon, where lay his brother Artaxerxes.

**Battle of Cunaxa, 401 B.C.**—By this time the Greeks discovered that the alarm had been given, and the great Persian army was awaiting their approach at Cunaxa. They hurried forward, and with their usual onrush, bore down one flank of the enemy's force.

The Persians were so terrified at this, that all but the centre, with Artaxerxes himself, turned and fled. The Greeks pursued,

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but Cyrus, within reach of his brother, regardless of the fact that only a few of his "Table Companions" were beside him, rode furiously at him, crying out "I see the man," and, while in the act of hurling his javelin, fell dead at his feet. The Greeks who stood their ground were speedily routed, while those who had pursued the Persian hosts, hearing that Cyrus was dead, turned back and joined their companions. They were in a most curious position. Strangers in the land, without a leader, with nothing to accomplish and no definite end in view, there was nothing for it but to make what negotiations they could with the Persian king. At first these were favourable. They had asked to be allowed to return home, and had offered to fight if this were opposed. Granting their first request, they were led by the crafty Oriental into a trackless wilderness, bounded by impassable heights. Here their leaders were murdered treacherously, and the remainder left to their own resources, without guides, generals, or provisions. But the gallant band would not despair. Xenophon, one of their number, was chosen leader on account of his stirring speech and cheerful encouragement, and the famous "Retreat" began. Attacked by the hill-tribes, hungry, half-naked, struggling over rugged mountains, through deep rivers, and over snow-covered plains, after many a weary day's march they emerged upon a ridge, from which they saw in the distance a sparkling, tossing line of foam. And then a great shout went up from the weary, worn-out band,

"Thalassa! Thalassa!"

"The Sea! The Sea!"

Miles though they were from the coast, they felt at home. Thus did Greeks, even in their hour of dishonour, show of what stuff they were made, and prove to Persia once again their superiority in arms and endurance.

**Growth of Power of Macedon.**—In the lesser wars that took place in the century which followed the Great War, hostilities were occasionally undertaken with the hitherto unimportant kingdom of Macedon, which lies to the north of Greece. During one of these, a young prince of Macedon, Philip by name, had been detained for some years as a hostage at Thebes, where he learnt the art of Greek warfare to some purpose. Returning to Macedon in due course, he made up his mind to conquer the whole of Greece, and, for this end, warily bided his time. At length it came.

## DOWNFALL OF GREECE, 405-338 B.C. 25

**Philip attacks Greece.**—A Social War had drained the strength of Athens to the uttermost dregs, when the Sacred War began between Thebes and Phocis. Opening their gates to the enemy, the aid of Philip was asked to decide their several rights, and once in Greece, the King of Macedon was only prevented from marching upon Athens by the energy of the Athenians at length put into motion by the stirring speeches of the great orator, Demosthenes. Nevertheless, in spite of this repulse, Philip had made Macedon the leading state in the peninsula by the end of the Sacred War.

**B. of Chaeronea, 338 B.C.**—No city could resist him. Athens was weak and nerveless; Sparta was shorn of her former glory; but a last attempt was made at Chaeronea, when Philip, the victor, danced like a madman on the field of victory, shouting insults at his once powerful enemy, Demosthenes.

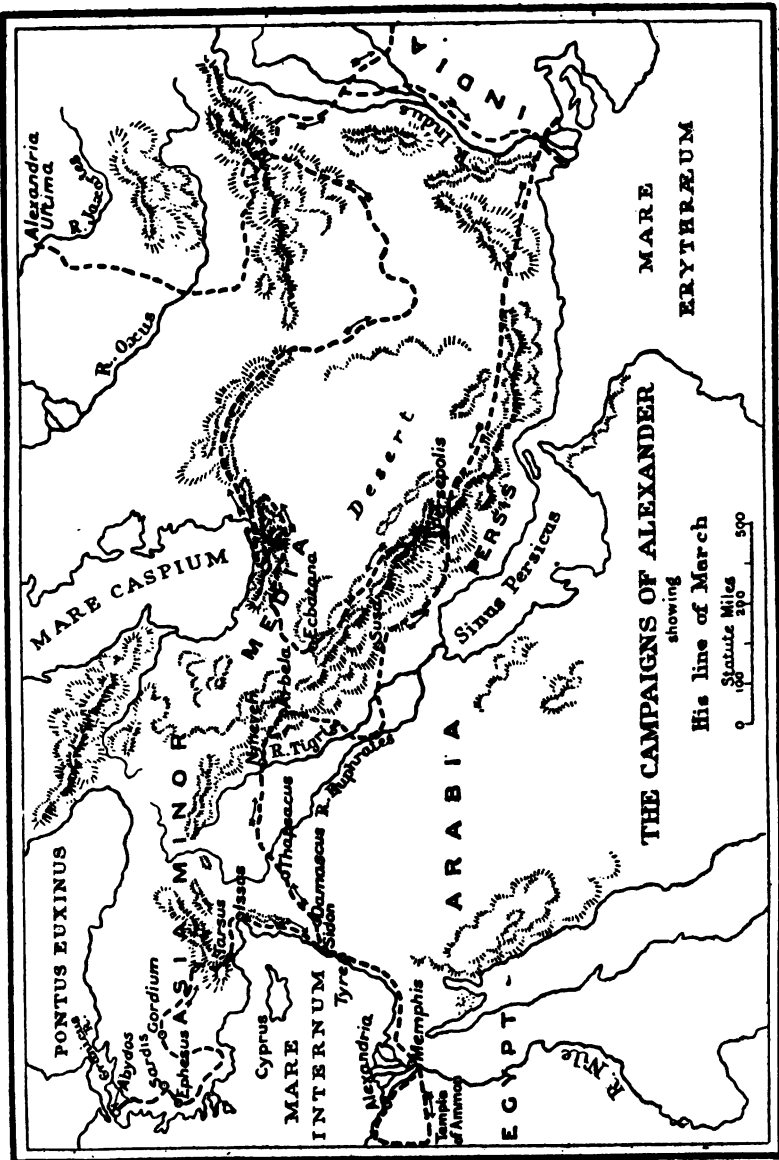
The liberty of Greece, her most precious possession, was taken away, for she had shown how little she knew how to use it wisely, and she became a province of Macedon.

His triumph was enjoyed by Philip only for a brief period; for he was murdered by an unknown youth as he joined in the festivities which celebrated his daughter's marriage.

**The Triumphs of Alexander.**—The commanding figure of Alexander of Macedon, whom men called the "Great," now steps forward as the conqueror, not of Greece alone, but of the known world. On his famous horse, Bucephalus, whom none but he could ride, he, though only seventeen years old, had fought valiantly on the field of Chaeronea. When the Greek states, rejoicing at the death of Philip, struck a last blow for freedom, they found the son still stronger than the father. Most of the chief cities quietly gave up the struggle. In Corinth, the great men hurried to pay their respects, but Alexander asked eagerly after Diogenes, the eccentric philosopher of the sect called "cynics." Learning that he had refused to stir from the sun in which he lay, in front of his tub, Alexander visited him and asked how he could serve him.

"By standing out of my light," was the reply, at which the King was so impressed that he declared, "If I were not Alexander, I would be Diogenes."

**Invasion of Asia, 334 B.C.**—Having reconquered Greece, and



## DOWNFALL OF GREECE, 405-338 B.C. 27

raised a small army of Macedonians, Alexander entered Asia Minor, hoping for new worlds to conquer. But his interests were not confined to warfare. As a boy he had loved the story of the Trojan War, and he now sought out the plain of Troy, and crowned the pillar of Sigeum with a garland. The curious vanity of his character peeps out in his declaration that he was the descendant of the great Achilles, and in his running thrice around his tomb to do him honour.

**Battle of Granicus, 334.**—At the River Granicus the Persian host awaited him upon the opposite bank. Struggling through the water and up the steep bank in the teeth of the foe, the famous Macedonian Phalanx routed the Persians, and thus Asia Minor soon fell into the conqueror's hands. Superstition aided him. When he reached Gordium, he found an ancient waggon there, of which the oracle had said, that whoever should untie the knot which fastened it to the pole should be the conqueror of Asia. On hearing this, Alexander promptly drew his sword and cut the knot; and thus the people were convinced that the prophecy was fulfilled, and put themselves in his hands.

**Conquest of Persia.**—The kingdom of Persia was his next aim. He followed the Persian army to Tarsus, where it seemed as though his career would be cut short by a chill caught by bathing when he was hot and exhausted. Moreover a message reached him that the doctor who attended him had been bribed by Darius to give him a draught of poison. And we learn the secret of his mastery over the hearts of men when we know that he forthwith drained the cup when it was next brought to him, while handing the message to the physician to read.

**Battle of Issus.**—The battle of Issus, fought between the mountains and the sea, was again won by Alexander, and the cowardly Darius fled, leaving his mother and wife to the mercy of his foe, by whom they were treated with the utmost honour.

When Darius sent in terror to ask Alexander to make terms of peace, he was told that he must no longer address the latter as an equal but as a subject. So he was forced in despair to get together a third great army, while the conqueror made a victorious march along the coast line through Phœnicia, taking Tyre and Sidon on his way, until he reached Egypt, where he was eagerly received, and where he proceeded to build the great city of Alexandria.



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**Battle of Arbela. Fall of Persia.**—But Darius' time was at hand. Marching to the region watered by the Tigris, Alexander came at midnight to the great plain of Arbela, on which his enemy lay encamped. His officers urged an immediate attack, but he would take no such advantage. "Not by night," he answered grimly, but ere the end of the following day Darius was a fugitive, and Alexander was head of the Great Persian Empire.

Still he thirsted for new worlds to conquer. Central Asia being subdued, he marched into India, where amongst other famous towns, he founded Bucephala in memory of his famous charger.

Here his soldiers, weary of warfare, refused to proceed further, and most reluctantly he was forced to return. On the way back, he nearly lost his life in storming the walls of a city. For being the first to mount, and the ladder breaking when his companions followed, he was thrown down alone into the midst of the enemy. Setting his back to the wall, he fought for his life, until an arrow brought him to the ground. But by that time his men had joined him, and his life was saved.

The wonderful success which always followed the steps of Alexander had not tended to improve his character. One day when he had bragged more than usual, a faithful friend arose and told him to his face that he was vain and boastful. In blind fury, Alexander rushed upon him and killed him with his own hand. And that friend had once saved his life. In his sorrow and repentance he lay two nights and a day on the floor of his tent in tears and fasting. But when another day a royal page saved him from being charged by a wild boar which he was hunting, by bringing the animal to the ground with his spear, he was cruelly scourged for having dared to disappoint the king of his prey. The greatest of conquerors fell an easy prey to his own evil passions.

**Death of Alexander, 323.**—Just as a new campaign against Arabia was being planned, this great soldier lay on his deathbed. He had caught a fever, and had aggravated it by heavy drinking in honour of his new undertaking. He died at Babylon in the thirty-second year of his age.

Within a few years of his death, his vast Empire which had been divided among his generals, was broken up, and the different countries once again maintained their independence of

## DOWNFALL OF GREECE, 405-338 B.C. 29

Macedonian rule. But the effect of his conquests remained. Greek learning, Greek warfare, Greek civilization had entered these countries once for all and could never be quite forgotten. As Professor Freeman reminds us, the history of Greece is the history of the world in a small space. "The Greeks," he says, "were the first people to show the world what real freedom and real civilization were. And they brought not only politics, but art, and science, and literature of every kind to a higher pitch than any other people ever did, without borrowing of others. In all these ways Greece has influenced the world for ever."

### SUMMARY.—CHAPTER VI.

- I. *Effect of the Peloponnesian War.*  
Weakness of Greece.
- II. *The Retreat of the Ten Thousand.*  
Cyrus and Artaxerxes.  
Battle of Cunaxa, 401 B.C.  
The March to the Sea, led by Xenophon.
- III. *Growth of power of Macedon.*  
Philip of Macedon a hostage at Thebes.  
Philip attacks Greece. The Social War.  
The Sacred War gives him his opportunity.  
Repulsed from Athens by Demosthenes.  
Battle of Chaeronea, 338 B.C.  
The Ruin of Greek liberty.
- IV. *Alexander the Great.*  
Invasion of Asia. Battle of the Granicus, 334 B.C.  
Conquest of Persia. Battle of Issus. Battle of Arbela.  
Fall of Persia. Victorious March to the Ganges.  
Death of Alexander, 323 B.C.  
Effect of his conquest; and of Greece upon the World.

### QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER VI.

- A 1. What events are connected with the following names:—  
Demosthenes, Cyrus, Philip, Xenophon; R. Granicus, Issus, Arbela, Alexandria, Cunaxa and Chaeronea?
  2. Draw a map showing the progress of Alexander from R. Granicus to India.
  - B 1. Give an account of the Retreat of the Ten Thousand, and compare with it the Retreat of Napoleon's army from Moscow.
  2. Explain very clearly what was the effect of the conquests of Alexander on the history of the world, comparing with it the effect of English conquests in any part of the world.
- Read.*—"A Young Macedonian" (Church).  
"The Retreat of the Ten Thousand" (Younghusband).

# EPOCH II

## RISE AND FALL OF ROMAN EMPIRE

### CHAPTER VII

#### THE BEGINNINGS OF ROME

750-500 B.C.

THE days which saw the fall of Greece saw also Rome in the glory of her power as a Republic; and the last stage of Greek History forms the story of how she became a part of the great Roman dominions. But the origin of that vast empire was a little pastoral village built on the banks of the yellow Tiber, some time in the eighth century B.C. We are travelling westward now in our history, and have arrived at the second of those well-marked peninsulas which were noticed in our first lesson. Look at the chief geographical features on the map of Italy. The mountain ranges run parallel to the coast line, so there are no high ridges to cut off one city from another. The rivers, too, are longer than those of Greece, and often form a means of communication between towns. In the centre of the peninsula stands Rome. Hence, while the Greek ideal was, as we have seen, the independence of each state, that of Italy was the greatness of Rome, the "Eternal City," the central point towards which all eyes were turned.

Notice her position well. She stands on seven low hills, which form an advantageous post for outlook and defence. Her river promises her trade advantages. Hostile tribes inhabit the region to the north, south and east. Hence her people must be not only traders but soldiers as well, and must tend their flocks with sword in hand. In course of years, as we shall see, this little pastoral settlement expanded into a great nation, absorbing and

## BEGINNINGS OF ROME, 750-500 B.C. 31

conquering bit by bit the whole of Italy and then spreading to the countries lying North, South, East and West, until, by means of her wonderful roads, her laws, her trade, all were closely connected in a vast network of mutual interests, the centre of which was Rome.

**The Building of the City.**—Probably about the eighth century B.C. her walls first rose. The Romans accounted for their origin by the story of the twin brothers, Romulus and Remus, who, cast out in the river by their grand-uncle to die, were saved and suckled by a friendly wolf on the very spot where, when they had grown up, they determined to build a city. But a quarrel began between them, and Remus in derision leapt over his brother's wall. So he was killed, and Romulus finished the city and became its first king.

The first builders were probably a handful of emigrants from the hill region, attracted by the river wherewith to water their flocks. A hole was dug in the ground: offerings of fruit and corn were placed therein, and the stone laid upon it became the central hearth of the new city. The position of its walls were then marked out by the oldest man present, who, with a plough drawn by a white ox and a white cow, marked out a line, and indicated where the gates should be, by raising the share at those points.

**The Royal Period.**—Quickly the walls arose as new inhabitants, overflowing from other cities and tribes, made their way thither. Probably the founder of the first hearth-stone was chosen king. Constant attacks from her neighbours on either side obliged her from the first to inaugurate a method of training her citizens to be good soldiers. The Roman mother taught her son from his birth to give service to the state and to devote himself to the welfare of his city.

In these early days the great distinction between Patricians and Plebeians first arose. The Patricians, or nobility, were the "fathers" of the city, and their descendants.

The Plebeians were those who in somewhat later days fled thither for protection, or settled there for trade purposes, and so became the middle and lower classes of the city, outnumbering the nobility, yet pressed down under the burden of disadvantages which led to a long drawn out conflict in later days.

The king was the law-giver, high priest, and chief magistrate of the people. His method of administering justice is seen in the

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account of the war with the neighbouring Albans, which was decided by a threefold duel between the three Horatii on the Roman side, and the three Curatii on the Alban side. Two fell of each family, and then the remaining Horatius killed the last Curatius. But when the conqueror reached the gates of Rome in triumph, his sister who had been betrothed to one of the Curatii, met him, weeping and reproachful. In his fury he killed her, and being brought before the king, was found guilty. Two men were forthwith appointed to declare sentence upon him, and he was ordered to be put to death.

Upon this he "appealed" to the people, urging his deeds of glory, and by them was reprieved and restored to his former position on certain conditions of purification.

Herein we find the king as supreme arbiter, but the sentence is pronounced by a kind of jury, and the final appeal is to the people, a principle which was always a noteworthy feature in Roman law.

**The Downfall of the King.**—There were seven kings of Rome. Under most of these the city grew and flourished. Fine buildings arose, which, if they lacked the beauty of Greek architecture, were at least solidly built on good foundations. In their time too the great sewers were begun, so large that a horse and cart might be driven up them. The remains of these sewers may yet be seen.

But the last of the kings, Tarquin the Proud, destroyed the affection of his people by his arrogance and tyranny, and a terrible wrong inflicted upon Lucretia, the wife of a noble, roused them to fury. The family of Tarquin was banished for ever, and the people swore a solemn oath never again to call a man their king. Brutus, a patrician, had taken a leading part in the expulsion of Tarquin, and he was now chosen chief magistrate, with the title of Consul. But, lest he should be tempted to seize upon royal privileges himself, a second consul was appointed, to be a check upon him. And thus a double consulship took the place of the kings, and Rome was constituted a Republic.

**509 B.C.**—Any patrician might put himself forward for the position of consul. He was finally chosen formally by the whole people, but in reality by the Patrician party alone, who were so arranged that, though smaller in number, their votes quite swamped those of the Plebeians. The outward signs of consular rank were the purple toga or cloak, the curule or ivory chair,

## CIVIL CONFLICT, ETC., 500-800 B.C. 33

from which decisions were given, and the *fasces*, or bundle of rods containing a hatchet, signifying their power to flog or behead. These were carried before them in the street by policemen known as "lictors."

Thus the Roman Commonwealth began.

### SUMMARY.—CHAPTER VII.

- I. *Italy*—its geographical features.  
Position of Rome. Advantages of hill and river.
- II. *The Building of the City.*  
Romulus and Remus.  
The Early Settlers. How the city rose.
- III. *The Royal Period.*  
Patricians and Plebeians. Their origin.  
Functions of the King—Priest, Law-giver, Magistrate.  
How justice is dispensed. The appeal to the People.
- IV. *Downfall of the Kings.*  
Rise of the Republic.  
Two consuls appointed.  
Signs, the toga, curule chair, *fasces*.

### QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER VII.

- A 1. Describe the position of Rome and write down the advantages thereof.
- 2. Who were the Patricians and Plebeians and how did they originate?
- 3. What were the three Signs of consular office?
- B 1. How was justice administered in the Royal Period? Compare it with the methods of modern days.
- 2. Point out, by reference to any modern Republic, and comparing it with that of Rome, the advantages and disadvantages of that system of government.

## CHAPTER VIII

### THE PERIOD OF CIVIL CONFLICT AND BORDER WARFARE

500-300 B.C.

The first two hundred years of the Republic were troubled by a double conflict. In the first place the position of Rome in the centre of Latium had to be secured, and her aggressive neighbours crushed by a constant series of petty wars, which

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hindered her growth and expansion, though they did good service in training her citizens to be men of war.

**Tarquin's First Attempt at Restoration.**—Thus almost immediately after his expulsion, Tarquin made a bold attempt to re-enter the city with the aid of a neighbouring king, and managed to involve in the plots for his restoration the two sons of Brutus the consul. The attempt came to nothing, owing to the discovery of the whole matter. On this occasion we see for the first time the stern Roman father condemning his own sons to be executed, and listening to no plea on their behalf. They had sinned against the Republic, and must wipe out their offence with their blood.

**Tarquin's Second Attempt. Lars Porsena.**—The second attempt of Tarquin was more successful, for Lars Porsena, the Etruscan king of Clusium, was his valuable ally. The city was surrounded, and would have been invaded had it not been for the courage and daring of a young Roman named Horatius Cocles, who with two companions kept the enemy at bay until the narrow bridge on which they stood had been sawn through. Then leaping into the Tiber, he swam to the opposite shore amidst shouts of applause from both friends and enemies.

Another brave young Roman has made this second attempt famous. He, Mucius by name, determined to go across to the enemy's camp, in order to kill Lars Porsena. With a dagger concealed under his toga, he mingled with the foemen, till finding himself, as he thought, close to the person of Lars Porsena, he struck and killed him. But he had mistaken his man, and being haled before the Etruscan king, was ordered to confess who had been his confederates. He refused to furnish any information whatever, and being threatened with torture, thrust his hand into a burning pan of coals, saying scornfully that they might judge from that how much a Roman cared for pain. But he warned the king that no less than three hundred youths, as determined as he, had sworn to take his life in the event of the first attempt failing.

Nor was determined courage found only in the men. When Lars Porsena had so far reduced the city that the Romans were forced to lay down their arms and give hostages, one of these, Cloelia, a girl of twelve, escaped from the enemy's hands and flinging herself into the swollen river, swam back to her own

people. The Romans kept their faith and returned the girl, but Porsena was so struck with this manifestation of Roman spirit, that he sent her home again. Nor, though he humbled the Romans, did he either restore Tarquin or seize the city.

**Last Attempt of Tarquin.**—For some years an intermittent warfare continued with the neighbouring Latin towns. At length a new official, called a Dictator, was appointed for six months, to have supreme command in the field of battle. Postumius was the first Dictator, and under him the Romans won a victory over the Latins at Lake Regillus. At first the tide of battle went against them, but afterwards it seemed as though they were reinforced by two mysterious horsemen, of great stature, riding huge white horses, at whose onslaught the enemy fled. Then they vanished, but on that same evening, some women drawing water outside the walls of Rome, became aware of two strange horsemen, dusty and blood-stained, who, as they watered their great white steeds, told them that a great victory had been won by Rome at Lake Regillus. In later days the Romans said that these mysterious allies were the gods Castor and Pollux, to whom a great temple was erected after the battle, and in honour of whom a solemn procession was held every year. Many new enemies rose up against Rome, but by gradually reducing their power, the southern borders of Latium were secured.

**Veii.**—But now the Etruscans of the North began to encroach upon the land lying between their city of Veii and the right bank of the Tiber. The clan of the Fabii undertook on one occasion to guard an outpost of this territory, but the people of Veii purposely left their cattle straying on the plains below, and the Fabii, who had previously refused reinforcements of their position, left their post and while chasing the cattle were cut down to a man.

This encouraged the men of Veii and the warfare went on for many years. At length a certain Marcus Furius Camillus, who loved war and was a born general, was made Dictator and determined to take Veii itself. He made in secret a tunnel leading underneath the temple in the centre of the city. Through this he led his men, arriving underneath the floor of the temple just as the people of Veii were holding a great sacrificial feast in honour of the attack they were about to make upon the besieging



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foe. As the king, holding the knife to the victim's throat, declared in a loud voice that he who finished the sacrifice should conquer in the fight, Camillus burst through the floor with his little band, and by his completion of the sacrifice made the prophecy true. Veii was taken and the northern frontier secured.

**Civil Conflict.**—During all this period a second cause was at work to disquiet and agitate the minds of Roman citizens. For the growth of Rome took place amidst trouble and discord; its "Golden Age" occurred only when the period of growth was at an end.

A series of quarrels arose between the two great parties of Patricians and Plebeians, the latter of whom were oppressed by many heavy burdens. The chief of these were the laws of debt. In order to set up business or build his house, the Plebeian had to borrow money on very disadvantageous terms from the rich Patrician. If his business failed or a bad harvest ruined his farm, or his flocks were seized by the hostile border tribes, he could not pay. He was therefore loaded with chains, thrown into prison, and finally sold as a slave. And this took place to such a large extent that the greater number of the most useful members of the "free" Roman commonwealth bade fair to end their days in a miserable captivity.

Another grievance was the "public land"—the territory which had been taken from the enemy and which, though properly belonging to all classes of the State, was usually seized by the greedy nobles. In very many cases a moderate grant of this land would have set the unhappy debtor on his feet again; moreover the Plebeians had a distinct claim to the ground they had fought for so bravely. So at length a stand was made; and when the next petty war commenced, the Plebeians withdrew themselves to the Sacred Mount, just outside the city walls, and refused to strike a blow for their country till their wrongs were redressed.

**Tribunes, 495.**—The Patricians, thus left at the mercy of their enemies, were forced to give in; and it was agreed that certain officers called Tribunes should be appointed for the special purpose of protecting the interests of the Plebeians. For this purpose they were obliged to keep their houses open by night and day, and never to be absent from Rome for more than one day. Their chief power lay in the right of "veto" (I forbid),

## CIVIL CONFLICT, ETC., 500-800 B.C. 37

by which they could prevent the passing of any law which they considered against the welfare of the people.

**Coriolanus.**—Soon after this point was gained there was a great famine in Rome. The poor were forced to beg for corn from the rich, whereupon a young noble named Coriolanus is said to have suggested that the people should only be given food on the condition that they gave up their Tribunes. This roused such indignation against him that he was driven from the city, and taking refuge with King Tullius of Antium, with whom Rome was at war, offered his services against his own countrymen. On hearing this, there was great grief and anger at Rome, which soon changed to alarm, as the enemy's host was seen to approach the walls. A deputation of five nobles was sent to beg for peace, but was haughtily repulsed by Coriolanus, the new general. A procession of priests, who adjured him by his country's gods, met with the same treatment. At last a weeping band consisting of his mother, wife and children, by their tears and sobs softened his resentful heart. "Oh, mother," he cried, "thou hast saved Rome, but lost thy son!"

He gave the order to retreat, but the disappointed Volscians hacked him to pieces with their swords.

**The Decemvirs, 451.**—The people kept their tribunes, but they began to see how unsafe was their position while the law of the land was in so shifting and unsettled a state that no man could say for certain what was against it, or in accordance with it. At length ten nobles were appointed for a year, to draw up the laws in accordance with those made for Athens by the wise Solon, and to have them engraved on bronze, that all men might recognise their unchanging nature. Meantime these Decemvirs had the supreme command, and their rule was so cruel and unjust that they were forced to retire, and many of them were put into prison. One of them, Appius Claudius, their leader, seized a young girl, named Virginia, and carried her off to his house to be his slave.

**Virginia.**—The news reached her father Virginius, who was absent with the army. Hurrying back to Rome, he craved permission to say farewell, and knowing his powerlessness against the Patrician tyrant, plunged his knife into the maiden's heart as he gave her his last embrace.

Such a deed shows the desperation in men's hearts and the

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spirit which drove them to put an end to the Wicked Ten. The laws which they had drawn up, however, were so good, that it is thought that in this case the evil-disposed among them have caused the wise and prudent to be forgotten. These tablets of bronze remained, in either case, as the firm foundation of Roman law.

In the events that happened during these troubled days you may see some of the characteristics of the Roman people—their courage, their sense of duty to the State, their hatred of injustice, their striving for their rights; and at the same time you may trace the growth of Roman power, and the way in which she made sure of her own border lands before venturing on conquests further afield.

### SUMMARY.—CHAPTER VIII.

- I. *Tarquin's First Attempt* at restoration.  
The sons of Brutus. A Roman father's ideal of duty.
- II. *The Second Attempt.*  
Lars Porsena. Horatius keeps the bridge.  
The attempt of Mucius and the courage of Clœlia.
- III. *The Last Attempt.*  
Postumius appointed the first Dictator.  
Battle of Lake Regillus.  
Southern frontier secured.
- IV. The taking of Veii by Camillus.
- V. Quarrels between Patricians and Plebeians.  
Laws of Debt. The "ager publicus."  
The Secession to the Sacred Mount.  
Tribunes appointed for the Plebeians.  
Coriolanus.
- VI. *The Decemvirs.*  
Laws learnt from Athens engraved on stone.  
Story of Virginia.

### QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER VIII.

- A 1. What do you know about the following :  
Lars Porsena, Horatius, Postumius, Appius Claudius, Camillus, Mucius, Clœlia, Veii, Lake Regillus, the Sacred Mount?
  2. What were the three chief grievances of the Plebeians?
  - B 1. Explain the character of the burdens laid upon the people of Rome, and compare them with the grievances of the poor of modern days.
  2. State, and illustrate by a sketch map, how Rome secured her borders.
- Read.*—"Lays of Ancient Rome" (Macaulay).  
"Coriolanus" (Shakespeare).

## CHAPTER IX

### THE BURNING OF ROME AND THE TEMPLE OF CONCORD

390-376 B.C.

**Camillus.**—Just when the people of Rome seemed to be struggling slowly but surely to success, a terrible blow fell upon them. It struck them at their weakest point, for their one great general, Camillus, was lost to them at the time.

A foolish quarrel had arisen concerning the spoil taken at Veii, and Camillus, in spite of his great services to the State, was sentenced to be banished from Rome. He went away in deep wrath, cursing the Plebeians who had brought the charge of appropriating the spoil, and swearing that he would never return until the citizens begged him to do so on their knees.

**Invasion of Gauls.**—Scarcely had his words ceased to echo in their ears when, like a thunderbolt, a new enemy, fair-skinned and yellow-haired, the Gauls from the north of the peninsula, poured upon Rome. There was little hope of resistance. Plebeians, women and children hurried to take refuge in Veii; the nobles retired to the rocky Capitol, trusting to its position at the head of a steep cliff to protect them; but the old men of the city, who had served as Consuls in their day, and were now reckoned among the Senators of the city, would not leave their meeting-place in the centre of the Forum, or market-place, but sitting there, awaited the foe.

Bursting through the deserted gates of the city, the savage tribes swept onwards through the empty streets, then paused, silent with astonishment, before that quiet, motionless assembly in the Forum, with their white hair and purple robes, seated upon ivory chairs. They took them for statues, not men, till one, bolder than the rest, stretched out a blood-stained hand and stroked the long white beard. In a moment more the old Roman had struck him to the ground, and the Gauls, in one mad rush, massacred them on that same spot.

Then they besieged the Capitol, but heat and illness told

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heavily upon the Gallic ranks, and for seven months the Romans held out.

But they felt the need of a wise leader, such as Camillus would have been, and determined to beg him to return. A youth was sent to him at Veii by night, but his descent of the steep cliff had been noted by the enemy, and a little band of Gauls managed to make the ascent, unperceived by the Romans, at dead of night. Just as the foremost was leaping over the enclosing wall, the geese, sacred to Jupiter, which were kept just below that spot, set up so loud a cackling that Manlius, one of the Romans, awoke, and, hurling the invader backward, gave the alarm, and the Capitol was saved.

Meantime the Gauls, having burnt the city to the ground, were wearying for their mountain homes. They now proposed that if the Romans would pay them a fixed amount of gold, they should retire. The Romans agreed, but it is said that at the moment of payment, Camillus appeared with a large force and throwing his sword into the scale-pan in which the gold was to be weighed, declared the Gauls should be paid with iron, not gold, and then, falling upon them, drove them from the neighbourhood. However that may be, the Gauls disappeared, leaving Rome a smoking mass of ruins.

It seemed for a brief space as if the life of Rome was ended. Her buildings destroyed, her documents burnt, she lay a helpless prey to her enemies. It was proposed that a new Rome should be founded at Veii, but braver counsels prevailed, and the work began of rebuilding the city. The necessary expense laid another heavy burden upon the Plebeians, and once again the old bad state of things prevailed between debtors and creditors. Then there came forward Manlius, as the People's Champion, and having sold his lands, gave the Plebeians the money wherewith to pay their debts. But the jealous Patricians, grudging him his influence and popularity, set on foot a report that by this means he meant to own the position of King for himself. The word "King" was still hateful in Rome. Both parties turned against him, and this kindly philanthropist was condemned to die before the Capitol. But when he heard that sentence, he cried out that they could not kill him in sight of the very building he had saved for them from the hands of the Gauls; and so in shame they took him away and hurled him down from the steep Tarpeian rock.

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As so often happens, the death of this man accomplished more than his life had done. Others came forward to enquire into the rights of the people. The law which gave a creditor power over the body of his debtor was abolished, and a new and most important regulation came into force by which one of the consuls was henceforth to be a Plebeian. This wise compromise practically ended the period of Civil Conflict; and as an everlasting reminder of the peace which now existed between the two parties, the great white Temple of Concord, built in part by the wealth of Camillus, now grown old and gentle, rose in the midst of the newly restored city.

### SUMMARY.—CHAPTER IX.

- I. *The Banishment of Camillus.*
- II. *The Invasion of the Gauls.*
  - Refuge taken in Veii and the Capitol.
  - Massacre of the Senators in the Forum.
  - Manlius saves the Capitol.
- III. *The Gauls burn Rome and then depart.*
  - How their claims are paid.
  - Effect of their conquest.
  - New debts for the people.
  - Manlius, the People's Champion, is hurled from the Tarpeian rock.
- IV. *New laws made.*
  - One consul to be a Plebeian.
  - Debt Laws abolished.
  - The Temple of Concord.
  - End of Period of Civil Strife.

### QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER IX.

- A 1. Write in order the three chief incidents of the invasion of the Gauls.
- 2. What do you know of Manlius?
- 3. What laws ended the struggle between Patricians and Plebeians?
- B 1. Compare the history of Manlius with that of any patriot of the Christian era.
- 2. Estimate the effect upon the history of the city of the burning of Rome by the Gauls.

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### CHAPTER X

#### ROME EXTENDS HER POWER IN ITALY

389-260 B.C.

The century that followed the period of Civil Conflict was one of great activity. Having now secured her own foundations and border lines, Rome went forth to stretch the arm of her power over the whole of Italy. Bit by bit the land was won, and, wherever it seemed fit, a Roman colony was planted to make the conquest sure. For there was this great difference between the Roman colonies and those of the Greeks. The latter were planted for trade purposes, or in order to find scope for the activity of exiled citizens. The former were military outposts, planted wherever there seemed a danger of attack or revolt. When a considerable district had been gradually secured by such settlements, one of the famous Roman Roads was made, joining each town to the other; and so the road became to the conquered people a type of their conqueror's rule, seeing that both had the qualities of thoroughness, endurance and hardness, which yet brought such advantages with them that it was both foolish and difficult to rebel against them.

**The Samnite War.**—The most troublesome enemies of Rome were the Samnites, a mountain-dwelling tribe, who, never knowing when they were beaten, kept up an incessant warfare, which resembled in many points the Border feuds between the Scotch and English in our own history. If these hardy mountaineers were driven back on one occasion, they descended again before the Romans could recruit their forces and drove off all their cattle. Many villages were destroyed by them, and they became a pest to the land.

The most notable incident in the First Samnite War, which shows again the character of the Roman father, was that concerned with the young son of the consul Manlius, who was acting as general of part of the forces. This youth was leader of a band of fiery young men and received orders that no attack was to be made until the word was given.

But the enemy, taunting the little company for their inaction,

bade them send a champion to measure himself against the picked man of their ranks. Unable to resist, and cheered on by his companions, young Manlius rode forward and fought and killed the Samnite hero. But when, flushed with victory, the youth entered his father's tent and laid his spoils at his feet, the consul asked him sternly what was the penalty of disobeying orders to a Roman soldier. The young man answered that it was death, and was forthwith condemned by his own parent to die.

**Decius Mus.**—The Roman ideal of devotion to his country is less unnaturally shown in the conduct of Decius Mus, another consul, who, when things were going badly for the Romans, dreamt one night that a man of god-like size and appearance came to him and warned him that in the ensuing battle either the leader, or the army, on the Roman side must perish. Finding next day that his colleague had had exactly the same dream, they held a solemn sacrifice, and when the portents were examined, they pointed to Decius as the leader who had been mentioned. Without an instant's hesitation, and pausing only to devote himself to the gods of the earth and the lower world, the brave Decius rode his horse into the midst of the enemy and was killed.

**The Caudine Forks.**—In the second Samnite War a terrible calamity overtook the Romans. The army was passing through a narrow valley, when the Samnite leader, Pontius, who was on their track, despatched a band to close the mouth of the defile. Finding it impossible to pass out, Postumius, the Roman leader, turned to retreat. But he found the rear part of the valley also in the hands of the foe, and thus they were completely blocked, without provisions or any means of summoning aid. It was impossible to force a passage through, and so they were obliged to surrender.

The terms made by Pontius before he allowed them to return, were terribly galling to the proud Roman spirit. They were to retire from Samnite ground, and leave the Samnites absolutely independent, withdrawing at the same time the outposts that had been planted. Worse still, the whole army was made to pass "under the yoke." An arch was made with spears, under which each soldier, stripped to the waist, passed in gloomy procession, and made his way back to Rome. But the Romans refused altogether to keep this treaty, and the war continued.



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**Curius Dentatus.**—The Third and last Samnite War was brought to an end by the decisive acts and good generalship of Curius Dentatus, whom the Samnites so feared, that they determined to try to bribe him not to lead the army against them any more. They sought him on his poor little farm, and found him cooking his humble meal, and their hopes rose high, for they thought that surely so poverty-stricken a man would be moved by money. But Curius answered sternly that he put no value upon gold, but only upon the ruling of those who had the gold, and drove them from his presence.

**South of Italy seized.**—The end of the Samnite War saw Rome mistress of all Italy south of the River Po, except that part of the peninsula which was known as Greek Italy, from the number of Greek colonies planted there.

**War with Pyrrhus.**—The interference of Rome with their affairs brought upon her the enmity of the powerful citizens of Tarentum, who invited the aid of Pyrrhus, King of Epirus, the district lying to the north-east of Greece.

This Pyrrhus was a great soldier, skilled in every kind of warfare, and of so noble a character that in after days the Romans were proud to call him a worthy foe.

**Heraclea, 280 B.C.**—Pyrrhus found it impossible to train the lazy and luxurious Tarentines to fight, so, with his army of Epirots and his famous band of elephants, he attacked the Romans at Heraclea, and won a great victory, but with such loss on his side that he declared that another such victory would be his ruin. For a time a project of conquering Sicily kept him engaged, but failing in this, he returned to Italy. Here he found himself face to face with Curius Dentatus, the conqueror of the Samnites, and trusted once more to his elephants to throw the Roman ranks into confusion. But these unwieldy animals turned upon their own side and threw the enemy into wild disorder. The Romans won the day, and Pyrrhus retired to his own country.

**Beneventum, 275 B.C.**—This battle was fought at a town called Maleventum (the ill coming), but from this time the Romans called it Beneventum (the good coming) in remembrance of that happy day.

From that time Rome was mistress of Italy, and could, for the next few years, devote herself to road-building, colony-planting,

## POWER OF HANNIBAL 264-204 B.C. 45

and to the increase of trade which followed in the track of her enlarged territory.

### SUMMARY.—CHAPTER X.

- I. Rome secures her conquests by colonies.  
Difference between Roman and Greek colonies.
- II. The Samnite War.  
Young Manlius slain by his father's command.  
The self-devotion of Decius Mus.
- III. Second Samnite War.  
The Caudine Forks. Surrender of Postumius.
- IV. Third Samnite War.  
Curius Dentatus defeats the enemy.
- V. The taking of Greek Italy.  
Pyrrhus of Epirus. Battle of Heraclea, 280 B.C.  
Battle of Beneventum won by Curius Dentatus.  
South of Italy secured.

### QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER X.

- A 1. Give one incident of each of the three Samnite Wars.
2. How was South Italy secured? Name the Greek ally of the Tarentines and the two chief battles in which he took part.
- B 1. What was the difference between Greek and Roman colonies? Name some typical instances of each.
2. Describe the incident of the Caudine Forks. Compare with it the keeping of the Pass of Thermopylae or any similar modern incident.

## CHAPTER XI

### THE POWER OF HANNIBAL THE LIGHTNING

264-204 B.C.

**Carthage.**—When Rome was in the midst of her first struggles as an infant republic, the city of Carthage, which lies on the north coast of Africa, just opposite the island of Sicily, had been rapidly increasing in wealth and power. She had the finest navy in the world, and the richest store of money. She ruled over the greater part of Sicily, moreover, and over a large part of Spain, and her trade in the Mediterranean was more extensive than that of any other country. Starting with these advantages, she found herself at the period of Rome's conquest of Italy,

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face to face with the latter as a formidable rival. No other country could approach them in point of vigour, strength and determination. Each meant to be Mistress of the World, and at first sight it seemed as though Rome must yield place to her older and stronger opponent.

**First Carthaginian War.**—Eager for a chance of proving each other's strength, the two nations seized upon a quarrel between the towns of Sicily as a pretext for war. Rome sided with one, Carthage with the other, and a long and indecisive conflict began. The most notable feature of this war was the first appearance of a Roman fleet on sea, which was speedily crushed by the superior ships of Carthage, and the misfortune of wind and weather. The Carthaginians were clearly the stronger by sea, the Romans by land, but the latter, undiscouraged, built and rebuilt their fleet until at length they forced the Carthaginians to leave the island, and Sicily became the first Roman province.

**Carthage in Spain.**—Very shortly after this event, the Carthaginians sent their finest general, Hamilcar, to Spain, that he might extend and strengthen their power in that country. With him he took his two young sons, Hannibal and Hasdrubal, who were brought up among the rough soldiery in such fashion that their father called them his "young lion-cubs."

Hamilcar did much to extend the sphere of Carthaginian influence in Spain, and on his death, his son Hannibal was elected leader by a devoted and admiring army.

Hannibal had cherished an undying hatred towards Rome from his earliest years. He had heard from his father how Sicily had been wrested from them, and he determined one day to take a bitter revenge. The town of Saguntum in Spain was on debateable ground. Rome had adopted the city and had given it her protection, but it lay within Carthaginian territory, and Hannibal determined to take it. It fell after a long siege, and Rome at once sent an embassy demanding the surrender of the daring officer who had attacked an ally of Rome. The Carthaginians returned an insulting reply, whereon the Senate met to consider the question of declaring war. In their midst arose Fabius Maximus, of whom, in connection with Hannibal, we shall hear again. Pointing to the folds of his toga, he announced that there he carried Peace and War; which would they choose to have? The Senators replied that they cared not

## POWER OF HANNIBAL 264-204 B.C. 47

which. "Then I give you war," he cried, shaking out the folds. And so the great Carthaginian War began.

**The Crossing of the Alps.**—The Romans hoped to carry on the war in Spain and Sicily, but Hannibal had planned quite otherwise. With a devoted army at his back he marched north to Gaul, and from thence began to ascend the Alps, intending to pass into Italy and to make that country the battle-field. But the ascent of the pathless Alps was a terrible task to men accustomed to the flat plains of Carthage or the valleys of Spain. Nearly all the elephants, their chief assistance in warfare, perished. The intense cold of the mountain tops caused the leader himself to lose one eye. Many of the soldiers died of exposure, or fell down slippery precipices and were never seen again. But at length the army stood upon the plains of Italy. Here they rested and refreshed themselves, and so were more than ready for the Roman army which was advancing rapidly upon them. The Romans were badly beaten, but most of the army escaped, and it seemed as though they might easily turn the tables on the adversary at the next opportunity, for a sojourn in damp marshes had caused much sickness and loss among the Carthaginians, and it was with diminished numbers that Hannibal, in his march to Rome, passed along the borders of the Trasimene Lake.

**Lake Trasimene, 217 B.C.**—Struck with the suitability of the spot for an ambush, and conscious of the Roman army hanging on his rear, Hannibal concealed his men above the narrow road between lake and mountain. The army of Flaminius, hoping to overtake them, entered upon this road, and immediately found themselves in the hands of an enemy who fell upon them from the heights above and from either side at once. The army was utterly destroyed, and the way to Rome lay open.

**Fabius Cunctator. Cannæ, 216.**—Deferring his attack upon the city itself until he could gain the help of the Italian States, Hannibal marched into south Italy, and found himself confronted by a new general, Fabius Maximus, whose plans differed widely from those of Flaminius. Keeping strictly to the heights, he watched the army of Hannibal with close attention, cutting off stragglers, but avoiding a pitched battle. In vain Hannibal tried to tempt him to engage; and meantime the Carthaginian army, strong in warfare but weak in inaction, dwindled and fell away. But un-

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fortunately the Romans were not satisfied with the policy of Fabius. They called him "Cunctator" (the Dawdler), and appointed Varro, a hot-headed general, as his colleague. When Fabius heard this he remarked drily that he had reason to fear Varro more than Hannibal, and so it fell out. For, finding that Hannibal was securing the whole corn supply round Cannæ, Varro determined to fight at once; and the result was the defeat at Cannæ, the blackest day in the annals of Rome.

**Base at Capua.**—Once again Hannibal turned aside from Rome and entering Capua, determined to rest and refresh his army in that city. The Romans, with Fabius again at their head, promptly besieged the city, which held out for some years, during which time, although Hannibal won many battles, a notable change came over the character of his army. The relaxing climate and luxurious produce of the city demoralised his soldiers and from the time that Capua was finally given up to Rome the tide of affairs changed. Hannibal, who had left Capua to its fate, was repulsed from Rome and withdrew to Venusia, there to wait for the help of his brother Hasdrubal, who had crossed over from Spain and was about to bring both money and allies to their aid. But they waited in vain, for the only message from the unfortunate Hasdrubal came in the shape of his gory head which was one day thrown into the Carthaginian lines, while two escaped prisoners brought the news that their leader's army had been cut to pieces, and he himself killed almost immediately on his entrance into Italy.

**Siege of Syracuse. Archimedes.**—The Romans, since they could not drive Hannibal from their own country, determined to carry the war into their enemy's land. Meantime, Carthaginian envoys had stirred up Syracuse, the most influential city of Sicily, against Roman authority, and it was found necessary to besiege it. Help was sent from Carthage, but the chief strength of the city lay in the genius of the great mathematician Archimedes, who, by his marvellous inventions and mysterious engines, kept the Romans at bay for two years. As the Roman fleet lay outside the city walls, great iron hands appeared over their tops, which hurled rocks and stones upon the decks of the ships, or seized and crushed the rigging. Burning-glasses scorched their sails, a mysterious glare of light revealed their secret operations in the dead of night. At length, however, the city fell, and the rough Roman soldiery clambering over the wall, found the old man busy drawing diagrams

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in the sand. "Mind my triangles," he is said to have quietly remarked ere the foremost soldier struck him down.

**Scipio attacks Carthage. Zama, 202.**—The next attack made upon the Carthaginian strength was in Spain, where in the course of a few years the Carthaginian power had ceased to exist, and then Scipio, the great general to whom so much of this success was due, determined to finish the war in Africa itself. The Carthaginians promptly sent for Hannibal, who was thus obliged to give up all the advantages he still retained in Italy. The two armies met at the field of Zama, when Hannibal, depending once more on the onrush of his elephants, was baulked by the wily Scipio, who stationed the lines of his men so widely apart that the animals made their headlong way without crushing the soldiers. The battle of Zama practically ended the Carthaginian war; Hannibal fled to Syria, then preparing to take up arms against Rome, and Carthage ceased to be of any importance whatever.

**Effect of Carthaginian War.**—The effect of the war with Hannibal was greatly to increase the power and dominion of Rome. Spain was in her hands, the trade of Carthage and of the Mediterranean was transferred to her, Italy gladly returned to her allegiance, Carthage as a rival was crushed for ever, and in days not far distant was doomed to end her existence altogether.

### SUMMARY.—CHAPTER XI.

- I. *Carthage*—her importance as a rival to Rome.  
Her trade and navy. Her power in Spain.
- II. *The First Carthaginian War.*  
Carthaginian arms in Spain. Hamilcar and Hannibal.  
Siege of Saguntum. Cause of war.
- III. *The Crossing of the Alps.*  
Hannibal in Italy.  
Battle of Lake *Trasimene*, 217 B.C.  
Fabius Cunctator. Varro made Consul.  
Battle of Cannæ, 216.
- IV. *Ease at Capua.* The tide of victory turns.  
Siege of Syracuse.  
Archimedes the Mathematician
- V. Scipio attacks Carthage and Spain.  
Battle of Zama, 202 B.C.  
Effect of Carthaginian War.

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### QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER XI.

- A* 1. Name the chief battles of the Carthaginian War, with the leaders on either side and the result of each.  
2. Describe the Siege of Syracuse.
- B* 1. Make a sketch map, tracing the march of Hannibal through Italy, inserting places where battles were fought, etc.  
2. Compare the Siege of Syracuse with that of Gibraltar ; *or*  
Explain carefully the effect of the war upon Rome.

## CHAPTER XII

### ROME EXTENDS HER EMPIRE TO THE EAST

202-146 B.C.

There was still a great piece of work for Rome to do before she could claim the proud title of Mistress of the World. Macedon and Greece, though shorn of their former glories, were still unconquered, and further to the east the kings of Syria were already growing uneasy at Rome's success and were preparing to take up arms against her.

**Macedonian War.**—The first place to which Rome turned her attention was Macedon, whose king had shown his antagonism by sending troops to help Hannibal at Zama. At this time, too, he was not only making constant attempts to seize parts of Greece, which had practically recovered her freedom after the death of Alexander, but was preparing to share with the King of Syria the dominion of Egypt, to whose throne a little boy had just succeeded. So Rome declared war. But although Philip of Macedon was a very different ruler from his great ancestor Alexander, it took some hard fighting before he was driven back into his own country and his power practically taken from him.

The Romans then declared Greece to be free, hoping that thus she would return to her former importance, yet meaning to claim control over her when it was to their advantage.

**Macedon and Greece become Roman Provinces.**—But this state of things turned out to be unsatisfactory in the case of both countries. Macedon, though subdued, was restless and ever

## EMPIRE OF THE EAST 202-146 B.C. 51

ready to revolt as long as she still possessed a king of her own. Perseus, the successor of Philip, openly rebelled. So the Romans again attacked the inhabitants, took Perseus prisoner and sent him to Rome. Macedon became from that time a Roman province.

It then became evident that Greece, left to herself, did nothing but waste the little strength she had in constant petty wars with one state or another. Riots also began in various parts, and revolts against the Roman rule. So Mummius was sent to Greece, and finding the chief resistance was made at Corinth, besieged and took the city and then completely sacked it. This Mummius was so ignorant and careless as regarded the Greek art-treasure, that a special message was sent to bid him take great care of the famous statues and pictures of which Corinth was full, and to send them carefully packed to Rome. Many of them had been already mutilated by the rough treatment of the soldiers, but Mummius ordered the rest to be put on board ship, warning his men that if they broke the statues or spoil the pictures they would have to replace them. That indeed would have been a task for a Roman soldier!

From that time the once mighty kingdom of Greece sank to the position of a province of Rome.

**Syrian War. Settlement of Asia Minor. Magnesia, B.C. 190.**—Shortly before this took place, Syria, which then included the greater part of Asia Minor, had to be dealt with. Some time before the taking of Corinth, the Roman army had crossed to Asia, and utterly defeated the King of Syria in the great battle of Magnesia; by this the Romans were able to force him to leave the whole of Asia Minor, with its Greek cities and navy, in their hands, to give up all deserters, and especially Hannibal, to them, and to pay a very large sum of money into the Roman treasury. The faithless king complied, even to the giving up of his friend and ally, but the great Carthaginian leader, who was always prepared for this event, swallowed a dose of poison, which he kept enclosed in a hollow ring on his finger, and so died.

The Eastern World was now ruled by Rome; for it was only a matter of time to colonise each of these new possessions, in spite of the frequent revolts of the inhabitants.

**Destruction of Carthage, B.C. 146.**—Elated by these triumphs, the Romans now gazed around them, as it were, to see in what direction they might extend or strengthen their dominions.



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Their gaze fell upon the helpless city of Carthage, which having been deprived of its power, they had further forbidden to fight in her own defence against any foe who might attack her. This was too much for the once proud city, and she refused to obey.

**Cato.**—One of the Senators of Rome, Cato by name, immediately became filled with determination to destroy her. He made many speeches to this end in the senate, and always finished them up with the saying, "Carthage must be utterly destroyed." It was a cruel measure to take against a powerless foe, but the Romans seem to have hated the very name of Carthage with relentless force.

At first the city threw herself upon the mercy of Rome, even consenting to send six hundred children, the sons of her chief men, as hostages for her surrender. But this did not save her. They were ordered forthwith to desert their beautiful city of the sea and settle inland. This they refused to do, and when the Roman army reached Carthage, they found her gates shut and the town fortified. Inside, men and women toiled by day and night to provide the weapons of which the Romans had deprived them years before. When cord became scarce, the women even cut off their long thick hair and plaited it for bow-strings.

But at length the general, Scipio Africanus, the nephew of the victor of Zama and the second "Scourge of Carthage," made a great wall round the mouth of the harbour, and so cut off the inhabitants from all supplies of food.

**Last Scene in Carthage.**—Starving and worn to death by their fruitless exertions, the Carthaginians opened the gates of the city. But one Hasdrubal, their leader, with his wife and children and the chief families of the place, shut themselves inside the Citadel, and held out desperately against the enemy. Finally the Romans set the place on fire, whereupon most of the inmates surrendered, but the wife of Hasdrubal, taking her two little children in her arms, threw them into the fire and then leaped in herself, preferring to perish in the flames rather than surrender to Rome.

The whole city was then burned and levelled to the ground.

**Spain.**—Spain alone of Rome's new conquests remained to be settled, and this was at first a difficult matter; for the Gauls of that country were so fond of fighting, that they kept up a continual warfare either in one part or another.

## EMPIRE OF THE EAST 202-146 B.C. 53

At length the Consul Gracchus hit upon the plan of getting one tribe to fight against another on the side of Rome, and so, by degrees, the country became peaceably colonised.

**Effect of Foreign Conquests on Rome.**—The chief result that these great conquests had in Rome herself was the addition of a vast amount of wealth to the city. But unfortunately this wealth was kept in the hands of the nobles, and went to build gorgeous palaces and to dress them in priceless clothes; while the working classes, whom the reports of money and riches, to be gained without work, had induced to leave their little farms and to swarm in the streets of Rome, found themselves left to starve. All power was in the hands of the wealthy, and the differences between rich and poor became more marked every year.

Another effect of the Conquest of the East was that a large number of Greeks now came to reside in Rome. The arts of medicine, of teaching, and of sculpture and painting, fell almost entirely into Greek hands, while it became part of the education of every Roman to read and enjoy the beauties of Greek literature.

Thus the bygone Empire of Greece began to spread its influence over the Western world, and to accomplish more by its fall than it had done in the days of its success.

### SUMMARY.—CHAPTER XII.

- I. *The Macedonian War.*  
Causes. Greece declared free.  
Macedon and Greece become Roman provinces.
- II. *Sack of Corinth, 146 B.C.*  
Mummius and the statues.
- III. *The Settlement of Asia Minor.*  
Syrian War.  
Battle of Magnesia, B.C. 190.
- IV. *Destruction of Carthage, B.C. 146.*  
The speeches of Cato. Treatment of the city.  
A desperate struggle. End of Carthage.
- V. *Settlement of Spain.*  
Plan of the Consul Gracchus.
- VI. *Effect of Foreign Conquests on Rome.*  
Luxury and poverty side by side.  
Greek influence spreads.

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### QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER XII.

- A* 1. By what means did Rome obtain new provinces during this period?  
2. Describe the Destruction of Carthage.
- B* 1. What effect had these Foreign Conquests upon Rome?  
2. Draw a map of the Roman dominions in B.C. 146.

## CHAPTER XIII

### HOW ROME TREATED HER PATRIOTS

130-100 B.C.

**State of Roman Society.**—In spite of her great success in other countries, Rome herself at this time was sinking rapidly into a very evil condition. You would not have known this if you had visited the city about the year B.C. 130. You would have seen fine buildings, marble statues, luxurious baths, and a wealthy and prosperous stream of people in the streets. But had you known where to look, you would have found a very different state of things. Bands of dirty, half-starved people begging at the doors of the rich for bread, gangs of slaves working in fetters, or shut up in horrible, dark, airless barracks at night, great tracts of land outside the city left uncultivated for want of labourers; these were some of the sights that saddened the more thoughtful Romans at that period. The countryside indeed was a more mournful spectacle than the crowded city, for a fertile, deep-soiled land was running to waste for lack of free workers to till the ground. What had once been flourishing tracts of corn-fields and orchards, was now covered with grass, the feeding ground of rich men's cattle tended by rich men's slaves.

What had caused this change over the face of smiling Italy?

**The Ager Publicus.** — This land had been taken bit by bit from Rome's enemies, as we have seen, and therefore belonged to the citizens, amongst whom it should have been fairly divided. But gradually it had fallen more and more into the hands of a few rich owners, who held enormous tracts of it, and who found, as the labourers and farmers had gone to Rome, (despairing of a livelihood where all the ground belonged to the

wealthy), that it was more profitable to turn it into grass lands and feed cattle on it.

So it came to pass, as one Tiberius Gracchus was heard to declare in burning words, that "the wild beasts of Italy had lairs and sleeping places, but those who fought and died for her had no share of anything but air and light."

It was to the task of helping these peasants and farmers of Italy to get back to the land that Tiberius and his brother Gaius devoted their lives.

**The Gracchi.** These two brothers known as the Gracchi, were the sons of that good Roman who had so wisely settled Spain, and of Cornelia, daughter of Scipio Africanus. Their mother was once asked by a Roman lady to show her the wonderful jewels her husband was said to have brought her from Spain. Taking her to the nursery of the house, she pointed to her chubby little sons asleep upon their mats and said, "These are my jewels!" Brought up by such a mother to find their chief duty in giving their poorer brethren a helping hand, the brothers became what we should call now-a-days, perhaps, Socialists.

**Plans of Tiberius Gracchus.**—As early as possible, Tiberius, the quieter and more simple nature of the two, got himself elected Tribune of the Plebeians, and at once set on foot various plans, of which the chief was to divide the "ager publicus" fairly among those who could claim it, as being Roman citizens. This meant, of course, that hundreds of wealthy aristocrats would have to give up part of their possessions, and these men promptly raised a powerful outcry against any such proceedings. They got one of the other Tribunes on their side, and this man put a stop to every step proposed by Tiberius by his "veto"; upon which Tiberius retaliated by stopping all his proposals in the same way. In time, however, the law of Gracchus was passed, though it was still a long way from being carried out. Then the aristocrats raised a fiercer howl against the man himself. Seeing that the only chance of getting the law carried out was to become Tribune again in the following year, Tiberius determined to stand for the office, although he knew it to be illegal to do so. This gave his enemies a handle against him. Riots followed whenever he attempted to speak. At length it was reported in the Senate that he, in addressing his followers on the Capitol,

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had raised his hand to his head. This he had done to make the people know by signs, since they could not hear him speak, that his life was in danger. But his enemies put a different meaning upon the action.

"He aims at a crown," they cried, and one of them, calling upon the friends of the State to follow him, rushed out and the ex-Tribune was struck dead in the riot.

His good measures were at once put an end to ; but the effect of his burning words still lived on, for the people, once roused, were in a more hopeful condition for future things.

**Gaius Gracchus.**—The aim of his brother Gaius, a man of more eager and ambitious mind, was to weaken the power of the aristocrats altogether, and to transfer it to the hands of the middle classes. The peasants were to be gradually drained out of Rome, by granting to them free lands in other parts of Italy, or outside Italy altogether, much as Canada has been colonised in our own days. But while this was being done, he wished the poverty of the people to be lightened by grants of free corn from the State treasury.

You can imagine how hateful these measures would be to the rich. Nor was the last a wise treatment of the poor, who thus became "pauperised," and did not wish to work while they could get food for nothing.

For a time, Gaius, by sheer force of will and character, brought about all he intended. But a further plan for making all the Italians free citizens of Rome was too much for the city. Both parties turned against him. The Senate declared him a public enemy, and offered the weight of his head in gold to anyone who would put him to death.

Fleeing to the riverside in a vain hope of escape, the reformer Gracchus is said to have perished at the hands of his own servant.

Thus the Romans put to death the only two men who had the cause of the city at heart, and who were far-sighted enough to see that if her poorer classes were ruined and degraded, the foundations of the city would be undermined, and she must soon fall to ruin. After their death, the people began to realise what they would have done for Rome. Over the statue of Cornelia in the Forum they put the proud inscription :—

"SHE WAS THE MOTHER OF THE GRACCHI."

But troubled times were ahead for Rome, and the people who

had once learnt to love scenes of riot and bloodshed, carried on their knowledge to some effect in the future, as we shall see presently.

## SUMMARY.—CHAPTER XIII.

- I. *State of Roman Society* B.C. 130-100.  
The "ager publicus" monopolised by the rich.  
How to get the people back to the land?
- II. *The Gracchi.*  
Sons of Sempronius Gracchus, and Cornelia.  
"Socialists."
- III. *Plans of Tiberius Gracchus.*  
Made Tribune. Distribution of public land.  
Opposition of Senate. Death of Tiberius.
- IV. *Plans of Gaius Gracchus.*  
Colonization. Corn-laws. Power transferred to middle-classes.  
Partial Success.  
Death of Gaius.
- V. Rome's treatment of her patriot sons.

## QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER XIII.

- A 1. What were the plans for the good of Rome made by (a) Tiberius, (b) Gaius Gracchus?
2. What were the chief evils to be removed at this period?
- B 1. Describe the reforms of Gaius Gracchus and compare them with those of his brother.
2. Give an account of the Social state of Italy at this time, and compare it with that of Ireland in the last century.

## CHAPTER XIV

### TROUBLED TIMES FOR ROME

120-80 B.C.

The years that followed the murder of the Gracchi saw a growing spirit of discontent and revolt among the poorer classes of the Roman citizens. They were marked also by a growth of another kind, the gradual development of the power of one or two individuals, instead of the true republican spirit, in which every citizen is equal, and possesses an equal amount of influence with the Senate and Consuls.

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**Galic War.**—The cause of this development was partly the struggle which now began with the Gauls of Northern Italy, and others, who came from what we now call Germany. A man of low birth, but of high ambition, named Marius, became the great general of those days, and was so successful, not only in repressing the Gauls, but in training and disciplining the army, that the soldiers almost worshipped him and would have followed him to the end of the world. And all this time such violent scenes were occurring at Rome, and the power of the authorities over the people seemed so weak and wavering, that men's eyes naturally turned to the victorious army and its leaders, and began to believe that a vigorous rule in Rome could only be established by force.

**Marius.**—Six years in succession the people had made their idol Marius consul, and each year had seen some great victory won over the Gauls. The army had increased vastly in popularity, under a general who ignored all distinctions of birth, and who admitted citizens and non-citizens to the legions upon equal terms. But this prepared the way for a Social War, between those who were not allowed the privilege of citizenship in other respects, and the true Roman citizens. The end of this war gave equal rights of voting in the elections to both parties, but did not put a stop to the spirit of contempt on the one side, and cordial hatred on the other, which existed between the Aristocrats and the Popular Party. Two men now came forward as the leaders of these two factions.

**Sulla and Marius.**—Sulla, who had once served as an officer under Marius, but who had since split off entirely from his side, headed the party of the Aristocrats, and Marius became the leader of the People. Both were soldiers, and both had great influence with the army. But Sulla's victories during the Social War had turned the balance in his favour with regard to the legions, and so, when the popular party wished Marius to have the command of the war then raging in the east, Sulla resisted, with the army at his back.

**Flight of Marius.**—Determined to bring about by force what could no longer be done by laws and enactments, Sulla marched upon Rome, intending to crush the power of Marius and his followers with one blow. Forced to recognise his danger, the old general reluctantly took to flight on board a vessel in the

harbour, but such a storm came on that, like Jonah of old, he was considered a source of danger, and landed on a lonely beach upon the Italian coast. Here he wandered about for a time, without food or shelter, till he was met by a peasant, who recognised the favourite of the people, and warned him that horsemen were searching for him all over the country. He hid for a time in the woods, but hunger at length compelled him to return to the shore, where he again managed to get on board a ship. But when the captain realised who he was, he would not have anything to do with his concealment, and put him on shore again. Here Marius wandered among the marshes of Minturnae, till, driven to bay, he concealed himself in a pool of water behind a labourer's hut, from whence he was dragged, wet and mud-stained, by his pursuers. The magistrates of Minturnae condemned him to death, and ordered a slave to fulfil the sentence. But the wild, fierce glare of the old soldier so dismayed the man, who had known him under very different conditions, that he flung down the sword and fled, crying, "I cannot kill Gaius Marius!" Upon this the officials reconsidered the matter, and resolving to banish him instead, put him upon a vessel which landed him near Carthage. Among the ruins of this place Marius remained for some time—two noble wrecks of former grandeur.

**Recall of Marius, B.C. 87.**—Meanwhile the popularity of Sulla had waned, and when he departed to take command of the army in the east, the Senate, realising the strength of the partisans of Marius, were forced to beg him to return, on condition that he would spare the lives of those who had formerly opposed him. Marius returned, but he made no promises. Surrounded by a band of ruffians, he entered the Forum, and as each citizen filed past him, he either saluted him, or with a grim look pretended not to see him, upon which the unfortunate offender was cut down by his companions' swords.

Thus the streets of Rome were stained with the blood of her people, and the murder of the Gracchi was avenged.

But Marius did not live to enjoy his triumph long. Excited by his feverish success, and worn out with his wanderings, the old man died in B.C. 86.

**Return of Sulla.**—His enemy Sulla waited only to complete the Eastern war before he hastened to Rome at the head of his victorious army.



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In vain the party of Marius strove against him. He forced his way into the city, and once more Rome found herself involved in the horrors of a revolution. Again the streets were bathed in blood, while the terrible proscription list added to the horrors of the time. For on these lists, which were posted in the Forum, anyone might insert the name of a private enemy, or of one whose property he wished to annex. And any man who put to death a man whose name appeared upon the dreaded list, was declared to be a friend of the Commonwealth.

**Proscription.**—Thus was the popular party subdued and trodden underfoot, while for a very brief space the Aristocrats triumphed.

But Sulla died in B.C. 78, having retired, a year earlier, from the post which he had waded through so much blood to win. He was the first in Rome to claim the title of Perpetual Dictator, an office which only differed in name from that of king. And when once the people had grown accustomed to the idea of such a monopoly of power, the way was quite prepared for the overthrow of the Republic and the formation of an Empire, as we shall see in the two next lessons.

### SUMMARY.—CHAPTER XIV.

- I. *The Gallic War and Marius.*  
Rise of Marius. Power over the army.  
Becomes head of popular party in the State.
- II. *Sulla and Marius.*  
Sulla heads the aristocrats and gains much power over the army.  
Rivalry.  
Flight of Marius from Rome.
- III. *Recall of Marius, 87 B.C.*  
Bloodshed in Rome. Death of Marius.
- IV. *Return of Sulla.*  
Revolution. The proscription lists.  
Power of one man.  
Perpetual Dictatorship.

### QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER XIV.

- A 1. What two great parties existed in Rome during this period, and who were their leaders?
2. Describe the double revolution in B.C. 87 and 82
- B 1. Trace the gradual development of the power of one individual in the Roman Government.
2. Describe the revolution of Marius, and compare it with that of (a) Sulla, and (b) the French Revolution.

## CHAPTER XV

### THE LAST DAYS OF THE COMMONWEALTH

78-40 B.C.

By the death of Sulla the Roman aristocracy lost their last great leader. Henceforth the people were to come to the fore, but only so far as that tended to the rise and power of one man, who, raising himself as it were on their shoulders, triumphed over Senate, aristocrats, and popular party, and transformed Rome from a Republic to an Empire.

**State of Rome.**—The atmosphere of the Rome of this day was charged with electricity. Revolution was in the air, and at any moment the storm might burst. A dissolute young man, named Catiline, became a means by which the government was almost overturned. He plotted to kill the consuls, and by means of his band of ruffians, to make himself head of the government. Fortunately for Rome the consul Cicero discovered this plot and nipped it in the bud, a fact of which he was never tired of reminding the Senate. But the effects of the plot, even when it came to no issue, were far-reaching. The people were in a state of mingled ferment and discontent. They could trust no one, and "Cicero and the Constitution" were to them simply a means of being oppressed and trodden down.

**Pompey and Cæsar.**—At this crisis two men came forward who seemed fit in every way to take a prominent place in Rome.

Pompey and Cæsar had acted together after the death of Sulla in completely overturning his constitution, and bringing back power to the people, and they went on to win another kind of popularity by their success in war.

**Pompey.**—Pompey, afterwards known as the Great, was a notable general. His force of character was seen most clearly upon the battle-field. When the Roman states were harassed by the bold sea-pirates, whom all men feared, and no fleet dared to encounter, unlimited power was given to Pompey, who, in a wonderfully short time, swept them from the seas. When Asia Minor was torn asunder by the miseries of a long war, Pompey brought

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it to a successful end, and restored it to peace again. But as a political leader this great general was a failure. He possessed neither tact nor foresight, nor power of organisation.

**Cæsar.**—Julius Cæsar, at one time his friend, was not only a great soldier, but a great administrator too. At first he was content to occupy himself in making conquests outside Rome, but all the time his eye was upon the state of affairs inside the city, and when the time came to strike, he struck home.

**The Triumvirs, B.C. 60.**—It was Cæsar's idea that, at a time when the victor Pompey found himself out of his element within city walls, they should both combine with Crassus, the richest man in Rome, to form a small committee of three, and should practically keep affairs at Rome in their own hands. This was one step nearer to the "one man" government than any which had existed since the day of Sulla.

**Cæsar in Gaul.**—Leaving his two colleagues to manage affairs in Rome, Cæsar then departed for his province in Gaul, which he meant to enlarge enormously before his return to the city.

Marius and Sulla and Pompey were all great soldiers, as we have seen, but Cæsar excelled them all. He was able and successful and wise. His soldiers idolised him, and would go through fire and water to win one approving word from his lips.

We have not time now to talk about his long war in Gaul, in which one tribe after another was subdued and tamed till all that we now call France, as well as much of the modern Germany and Belgium, formed part of the Roman dominions. Some day those of you who learn Latin will read about these exciting wars in a book written by Cæsar himself, called the "Gallic War."

**Visit to Britain, B.C. 55.**—And in this same book he tells how he went over to Britain and fought against the savage inhabitants, and found them such hardy foes that he retired from the conflict, meaning to visit the island again.

**Pompey at Rome.**—Meantime Pompey had used his advantage to undermine his friend's power at Rome. He had recognised the popularity of Cæsar, and had decided to rival him, and to keep the chief authority in his own hands. So he had himself

## LAST OF COMMONWEALTH, 70-40 B.C. 63

made sole Consul, and instead of rejoicing in Cæsar's success in Gaul, determined to hinder his progress in every way possible.

He persuaded the Senate to make a decree, by which Cæsar was ordered to disband his army and to remain in his province as a private individual.

**Crossing the Rubicon.**—If Cæsar had obeyed this command, his power in Rome was gone for ever.

If he disregarded it, he was forced to take up a position of open defiance against the State. Meditating upon the matter he brought his army to the bank of the Rubicon, the stream which separated Gaul from Italy. If he crossed this boundary, he broke the command of the Senate, for no holder of a province might leave it without permission. All night he hesitated, but with morning light he cried, "The die is cast," and plunging his charger into the stream, crossed into Italy with the army at his back.

**Flight of Pompey. Battle of Pharsalia, 48 B.C.**—When he thus reached Rome in full martial array, he found the city deserted by his faithless friend, who, knowing what was in store for him, had fled to Greece with as many legions as he could hastily call together. Having first made sure of Rome, Cæsar followed him thither, and met him on the plain of Pharsalia. By this time Pompey had collected a very large army, but Cæsar's soldiers, trained by him, and never knowing when they were beaten, won a great victory, which established Cæsar's supremacy over all.

"Spare your countrymen!" was the watch-word of the great general upon that day, and by his wise pardon of all who came to make their submission to him, he won the whole of the army to his side.

**Fate of Pompey.**—Fleeing from the field of Pharsalia, Pompey hastily made his way from one state to another, and finding none willing to receive the conquered, hastened to Egypt, where he hoped to find protection.

The Egyptian council, with true Eastern guile, determined neither to receive nor to repel. A boat was sent to bring him ashore. He recognised an old comrade in it and greeted him with gladness. He was answered only by a gruff word, and as he stepped from the boat, the sword of his former friend was struck through his body. Wrapping his face in his toga, the once great Roman died.

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Thus were all obstacles removed from Cæsar's path, and he could go straight forward to win his highest ambition.

### SUMMARY.—CHAPTER XV.

- I. *State of Rome.*  
Conspiracy of Catiline. Cicero's discovery.
- II. *Pompey and Cæsar.*  
They act together and overturn Sulla's arrangements. Characters of Pompey and Cæsar.
- III. *The Triumvirs.*  
Cæsar in Gaul. His conquests. The Gallic War. Visit to Britain.
- IV. *Pompey at Rome.*  
Rivalry against Cæsar. Order to disband army. Crossing the Rubicon.
- V. *Flight of Pompey.*  
Battle of Pharsalia, 48 B.C.  
Fate of Pompey.

### QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER XV.

- A 1. What do you know of the characters of Pompey and Cæsar.  
2. Describe the circumstances which led up to the battle of Pharsalia.
- B 1. Describe the state of Rome before the formation of the First Triumvirate.  
2. Try to account for Pompey's fall and Cæsar's success during this period.

## CHAPTER XVI

### THE FORMATION OF THE EMPIRE

48-31 B.C.

Julius Cæsar was now at the height of power, and held the whole of Rome in the hollow of his hand. Nominally he was made Perpetual Dictator, as Sulla had been, but actually he was an absolute monarch; and when he had filled the cup of his triumph by victories over those who opposed him, in every part of the Roman dominions, he was unanimously given the name of "Imperator," or Emperor, which, though it meant at first only that he held the supreme military authority, soon came to be the title by which the monarchs of the new Empire were distinguished.

## FORMATION OF EMPIRE 48-81 B.C. 65

**Reforms of Cæsar.**—As we have seen, Cæsar was as great in the Senate as on the battlefield, and under his firm yet kindly discipline, Rome quickly emerged from a condition of misery, unsettlement and revolution, to one of peace and happiness and prosperity; a condition which sowed the seeds of the Golden Age of Augustus in the next reign.

The owners of the great sheep-runs of Italy were obliged to work their lands with at least a third of their servants freemen. Thus slavery was lessened, and the people brought back to the land. Excellent opportunities were given for emigration to colonies planted in Carthage, Corinth, and Gaul. Thus poverty and overcrowding were removed.

New buildings were begun, new laws regulated all departments of trade, and the Calendar, which had got into a hopeless state of confusion, was put to rights.

**Conspiracy of Brutus and Cassius.**—In the midst of all these reforms a little band of men were standing aloof, and watching the growth of Cæsar's power and popularity with doubtful eyes. The leaders of these men were Brutus and Cassius, who had fought on Pompey's side, but had been pardoned freely, and advanced to high offices by Cæsar. Brutus was especially favoured by him, but this man was a true descendant of the first consul of the Republic, and could but watch with troubled gaze the many signs he detected of Cæsar's wish to be created king. It was true that, on the occasion of a great festival held at Rome, his friend Mark Antony thrice offered him a kingly crown. But the ominous silence of the watching crowds had its effect upon Cæsar, and he waived it aside, ordering it to be dedicated to Jupiter, the only king. Meanwhile he was openly making arrangements for the succession of his nephew Octavius, whom he had adopted, and so establishing a line of descent, which could only be done in the case of an hereditary monarchy. The fickle nature of the citizens was easily stirred by attention being called to these facts. They were reminded too, how kingly Cæsar's manner was becoming, how he no longer courted the favour of the people, but even when attending the displays in theatre and circus, would write his private letters or read a book as though he had no concern with the people's pleasures.

So, forgetting his private friendship, Brutus stirred up the

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populace against him, and when he felt sure of their sympathy, determined to sweep Cæsar from their path and return to the old constitution. But so strong was the Emperor's influence over men's hearts, that he dared not announce to more than a very few what he meant to do, and would perhaps have hesitated long to carry out his plan had he not been goaded on by Cassius, who seems to have been imbued with a personal spite against Cæsar.

**The Ides of March.**—One day, as the dictator walked down to the Forum, an old soothsayer caught his toga, saying, "Cæsar, beware the Ides of March!" Some of his attendants heard the saying, and guessed that a plot was in making, but the dictator smiled a scornful smile and passed on. As the 15th of March drew near, many of his friends, and especially his wife, tried to persuade him not to show himself that day in the Senate. But nothing would move his resolve, and he set out, saying, with a smile, as he passed the soothsayer:

"The Ides of March are come!"

"Ay, Cæsar, but not gone," answered the hollow voice. Even then he might have been saved, for among the many petitions pressed upon him as he walked along was a paper which disclosed the whole plot, and which the man who placed it in his hand, begged him to read at once. But Cæsar only handed it with the rest to his attendant, and entered the Senate house. There he was at once surrounded by the conspirators, one of whom presented a petition that his brother might be recalled from exile. This Cæsar refused, and as he turned away, the man clutched at his toga. Immediately a dozen daggers sheathed themselves in his body. He turned to defend himself, only to find himself face to face with the uplifted dagger of Brutus.

"You, too, my son!" he cried, overcome at the sight of one he had dearly loved, and, covering his face with his robe, he sank helpless at the very base of Pompey's statue.

"Ingratitude more strong than traitor's arms  
Quite vanquished him; then burst his mighty heart."

And so the greatest of the Romans died.

**Mark Antony.**—You will, I hope, read for yourselves in the pages of Shakespeare, how Mark Antony, with his clever tongue, so won over the people of Rome, at the funeral oration over

## FORMATION OF EMPIRE 48-81 B.C. 67

Cæsar's body, that the very men who had considered him a traitor to his country, now wished only to hound out his murderers and to receive his nephew, Octavius. The latter quickly marched upon Rome, with that determination which distinguished him even at the age of eighteen; while Brutus and Cassius escaped to Macedonia, where they collected two large armies. The part Antony had played in affairs of late had been so conspicuous that Octavius, or Augustus, as he was afterwards called, could not seize the supreme authority as he hoped, and so was obliged to divide his power both with him and with one Lepidus, who had much influence in the provinces; and these three assumed the head of the State as the Triumvirs. Joining their forces, Antony and Augustus proceeded to Macedonia, there to take a signal vengeance upon the murderers of Cæsar. In the first battle, Brutus' army had the advantage, but Cassius thought that his friend had perished, and so killed himself rather than be taken prisoner. A little later, Brutus, sick at heart, and haunted by the memory of the friend he had sacrificed to a mistaken idea of duty, was defeated, and finding his men in flight, fell upon his own sword. So died one who has been called the "Last of the Romans," meaning, of course, the last of those who thought that Rome's only chance of greatness lay in the preservation of a republican form of government.

This battle at Philippi put the supreme power at once into the hands of Antony and Augustus Cæsar. They agreed to divide the Empire, as it was now called, between them. Antony took the east, and Augustus the west, while Italy was to be common to both.

**Antony and Cleopatra.**—Mark Antony had many of the characteristics of a truly great man. He was clever, versatile, and ambitious. But he had no stability in his character, and a few years of residence in the luxurious East, made him lazy, treacherous and dissipated. It was at Alexandria that he first saw Cleopatra, Queen of Egypt, in her golden barge with its silken sails, drawn by milk-white swans.

Deserting his wife, who was the sister of Augustus, Antony lived with this beautiful, wicked woman, and under her influence deteriorated so fast that even his soldiers and attendants were ashamed of him.

In vain did Augustus try to recall him to a sense of duty and



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fitness. He made one or two feeble efforts, but always relapsed again and went back to the side of a queen, who, to make an expensive drink, melted a priceless pearl in vinegar; and so degraded the mind of the once clever orator, that he wept with rage when he failed to catch as many fish as she did in the royal lake. Whereupon, it is said that she sent a diver to put a salt fish on his hook, and then derided him with mocking laughter. What a downfall for one who had helped to sustain the Roman Empire!

**Battle of Actium, 31 B.C.**—His patience worn out at length, Augustus declared war upon the worthless pair. The great fleet of Egypt was prepared to meet the Roman navy, but as in the days of the Spanish Armada, the active little Italian ships completely wrecked the great barges of Egypt, and won a complete victory at Actium. Cleopatra herself, in a panic of terror, gave the signal for retreat, and fled to the shore. Antony followed her, and hopeless of escape, or of mercy at Cæsar's hands, stabbed himself and died in Cleopatra's arms. She, by the command of Augustus, was brought to Alexandria, where she vainly tried to exercise her blandishments upon the stern young Emperor. Finding all of no avail, she had an asp conveyed to her in a basket of fruit, and putting the poisonous creature on her arm, put an end to her wicked life.

**Augustus Cæsar.**—Thus did Augustus Cæsar become supreme Emperor both of East and West, and the first of the line of kings which was henceforth to rule over the Empire of Rome.

### SUMMARY.—CHAPTER XVI.

- I. *Reforms of Julius Cæsar.*  
Free labourers. Emigration. Calendar.
- II. *Conspiracy of Brutus and Cassius.*  
Growth of despotic power.  
The kingly office.  
The Ides of March. "Et tu, Brute!"
- III. *Mark Antony.*  
The funeral speech. Octavius enters Rome.  
The Triumvirs, 42 B.C.  
Battle of Philippi, 42 B.C.
- IV. *Antony and Cleopatra.*  
Degradation of Antony.  
Battle of Actium, 31 B.C.  
Augustus Cæsar becomes sole Emperor at Rome.

# GOLDEN AGE OF ROME 30 B.C.-14 A.D. 69

## QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER XVI.

- A* 1. What were the chief reforms of Julius Cæsar?  
2. Describe the death of Cæsar.
- B* 1. Analyse the character of Mark Antony.  
2. Trace the development of the Empire from the days of Sulla to those of Augustus Cæsar.
- Read.*—Shakespeare, "Julius Cæsar."

## CHAPTER XVII

### THE GOLDEN AGE OF ROME

30 B.C.—14 A.D.

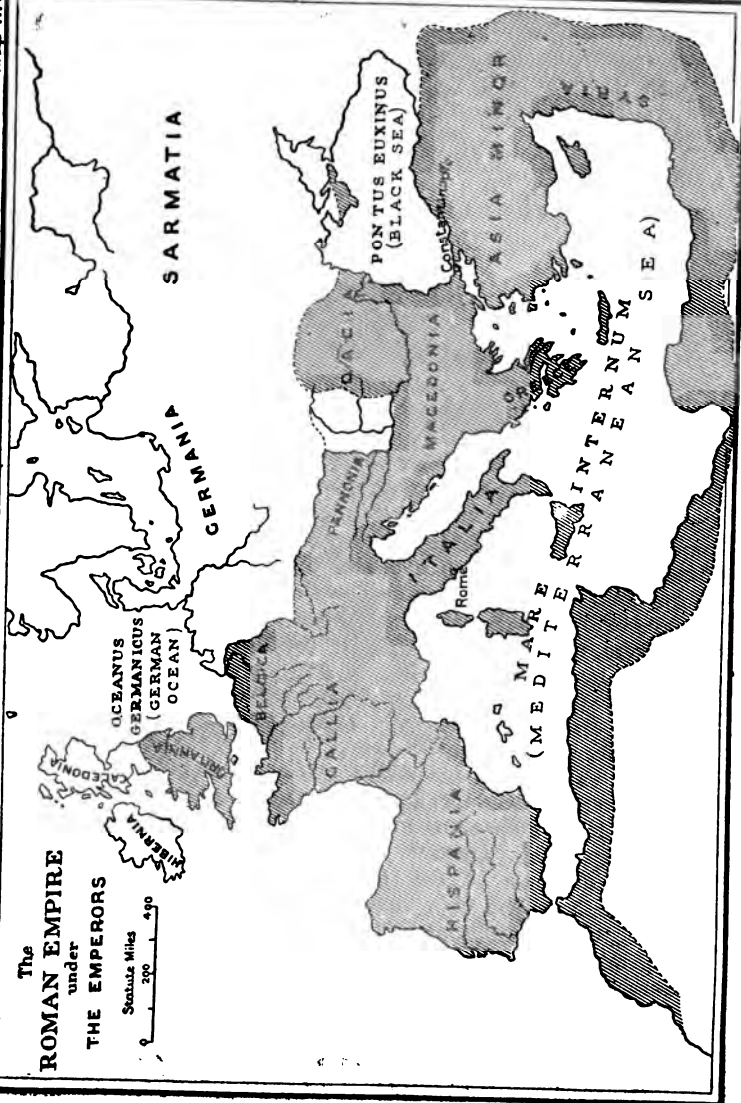
The year that followed the triumph of Cæsar Augustus as the acknowledged head of the Roman Empire, the great gates of Janus, which always stood open in war-time, were closed for the second time in the history of Rome. Oppression and bloodshed, and cruel slavery came to an end, and peace and plenty flourished in the land. Even the distant parts of the Empire were kept in security without any great expenditure of life or money. Wars there were, with the hostile tribes who strove to snatch back what had been taken from them, but the frontiers were so well guarded that these attacks were reduced to a minimum.

Inside the city all was calm and contentment. The Senate still existed, but was entirely swayed by the Emperor, who by his choice of wise men as his officers and counsellors, made himself respected and beloved by all parties in the State. No wonder that the poet Horace wrote to him, after a three years' absence in a distant part of the Empire :

"Best guardian of the race of Romulus, return! Your country calls to you with vows and prayers . . . for when you are here, the ox plods up and down the fields in safety; Ceres and bounteous blessings cheer our farm; our sailors speed o'er seas infested by no pirate; credit is kept unspotted; crime is checked; family life purified; none fears the invasion of Parthian or German; each man closes a peaceful day on his native hills, trains his vines to the widowed trees, and home returning, light of heart, quaffs his wine and blesses you as his god!"

The  
ROMAN EMPIRE  
under  
THE EMPERORS

Statute Miles  
0 200 400



## GOLDEN AGE OF ROME 80 B.C.-14 A.D. 71

Throughout the whole of this reign no plot or hint of revolt disturbs the peaceful picture, for Rome was in the hands of a great politician, full of wisdom, tact, and the kind of influence which attaches men personally to a ruler with reverent affection.

**Birth of Christ, 1 A.D.**—In the thirtieth year of his reign, the year in which a decree went out from Augustus that a "census" or "taxing" should be taken of the Roman dominions, the Divine Child was born in Bethlehem of Judæa, whose life of thirty-three years was to change the history of the world. Probably in far-off Rome, none knew of His life and death, although He was, as you will remember, brought up for trial before Pilate the Roman Governor. He was crucified by the Jews in the reign of the successor of Augustus, and it was not very many years later that St Paul, his follower, was brought as a prisoner to the dungeons of Rome.

**The Augustan Age.**—This time of peace and happiness is known as the Augustan Age of Rome. But when we call to mind the similar interval between war and bloodshed in our history of Greece, we shall not be far wrong if we name it, for the same reasons, the "Golden Age." Art and literature flourished apace, for Augustus gave every encouragement to artists and writers to settle in Italy and pursue their professions there. The poet Horace wrote his delightful Odes and Letters and Satires. The historian Livy completed the history from which we gain our knowledge of these past events. But above all the poet Virgil, the Homer of Italy, composed the great poem of the "Æneid," which became the highest monument of Rome's best age. Some day you will have the joy of reading this work, which is full of stirring stories and noble deeds as well as of the finest poetry. We may almost say that the most notable event of the reign of Augustus was the recitation of this poem to the Emperor by the poet's own lips as they sat together by the shore of a peaceful and well-governed country.

It was soon after this period that all dwellers in the Roman Empire became "Romans." And when this was once established, Rome herself naturally ceased to be the universal dwelling-place, and the way was prepared for other cities to become the seats of government.

Just at the time, then, that Rome's prosperity seemed most fixed and determined, she stood upon the brink of sweeping

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changes, and was already, strange as it may seem, tottering to her downfall. A new religion was to replace the old, the authority of her rulers was to grow less and less, until it vanished altogether; and a new Empire was to rise upon her foundations.

### SUMMARY.—CHAPTER XVII.

- I. *The restoration of peace to Rome.*  
State of Rome. The words of Horace.  
Birth of Christ.
- II. *The Augustan Age.*  
The "Golden Age of Rome."  
Literature. Virgil and his "*Æneid*."
- III. *A peep into the future of the Empire.*

### QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER XVII.

- A* 1. Describe the state of Rome under Augustus.  
2. What do you know of Virgil?
- B* 1. Write a short account of the Golden Age of Rome and compare it with that of Greece.  
2. What do you know of the Augustan Literature?
- Read*.—"Stories from Virgil" (Church).

## CHAPTER XVIII

### THE DOWNFALL OF THE EMPIRE

14-476 A.D.

In this lesson we are going to review very briefly a period of more than four hundred years. We have seen how, step by step, Rome climbed to greatness, and we shall only be able to take a quick glance at the period during which she slid swiftly to her destruction, noting some of the causes of her fall, and the chief events which stand out in relief, as we pass on to the end.

**Deterioration of the Emperors.**—The successors of Cæsar Augustus proved themselves unworthy of his name. He had used his power to improve the state of Rome; they employed it merely to serve their own base ends. Luxury and tyranny were their

## DOWNFALL OF EMPIRE 14-476 A.D. 73

characteristics, and the first of these had so far become a part of the lives of their subjects that none were found strong enough to rebel against them. The first of these Emperors, Tiberius, although the Empire was as prosperous as ever in his days, passed his life in a state of miserable suspicion, and had all those whom he had any cause to fear, including his own near relations, put to death. His son, Caligula, was so utterly cruel and wicked that he seems to have been nothing else than a raving madman. When at length he was smothered by some of his officers, the army for the first time demanded the right of choosing the Emperor, and appointed Claudius Cæsar. In his reign Britain was again invaded, and he himself visited the country in 43 A.D. It was he, too, who treated with kindness the British prisoner Caractacus, who was taken to Rome to grace his triumph, and whom he allowed to return to his own country.

**Christianity at Rome.**—It was in the year 60 A.D. that St Paul first came to Rome as a prisoner. There were probably a few Christians there before that time, who had learnt the new religion possibly from wanderers from the land of Palestine. St Paul's long sojourn and his great missionary zeal made the good seed grow apace; and a large colony of Christian converts existed there in the time of Nero, the most tyrannical and cruel of all the Roman Emperors. He it was who once when Rome was on fire, after reading of the burning of Troy, sat up in a tower playing the violin and watching with interest the agonies of his burning subjects. He it was who set on foot a terrible persecution of the Christians, in order that he might see them devoured by wild beasts within his new-built Coliseum, or make them, covered with burning tow, act as living torches for his garden-party. He it was too, who sent his aged mother, who had herself committed many crimes for his sake, to sea in a boat riddled with holes, and stood upon the shore to see her drown.

Such a monster of inhuman cruelty was Nero, and we can but guess at the condition into which his subjects must have fallen, that they did not drag the ruffian from his throne. Not until the army brought pressure to bear, was he deposed and forced to commit suicide in 68 A.D.

**Siege and fall of Jerusalem.**—The most notable events under the Emperors who followed, were the Siege of Jerusalem, maintained by the Jews in one last attempt to throw off Roman rule.

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The miserable inhabitants were so maddened by want of food that men actually devoured their own babes, before the city fell and Jerusalem was destroyed.

**Conquest of Britain, 84 A.D.**—In 84 A.D. the brave general Agricola, in the days of Domitian, completed the conquest of Britain. Thus, when Rome grew weak, she was already handing on her civilisation to a younger and more worthy race.

**Persecution of Diocletian.**—Towards the end of the third century, another terrible series of persecutions of the Christians broke out, under Diocletian; but this only had the effect of making the forbidden religion increase and flourish throughout the length and breadth of Italy. In the beginning of the fourth century these doctrines had penetrated even to the palace of Constantine, the new Emperor. For some years he held aloof from them, but one night, as the story goes, as he was with his army upon the battle-field, awaiting the morrow's engagement, he saw the Sign of the Cross flashing in the Eastern sky, and underneath it this legend, *In hoc signo vinces* ("In this sign thou shalt conquer"). Deeply impressed and troubled, Constantine determined to let the next day's battle settle the matter. He won a great victory and soon after embraced the Christian Faith.

**Constantinople.**—Another great change came over the face of the Empire in these days. For some years the Emperors had ceased to reside at Rome, but Constantine proceeded to found a great city on the Bosphorus, called Constantinople, which became the capital of the East, and the centre of Greek learning and literature.

**Inroads of the Goths.**—Before the beginning of the fifth century a danger which had been threatening the Empire for many years, began to assume alarming proportions. The Goths of Germany and the North-West of Europe began to make great inroads into the Roman dominions, and the Roman arms were not strong enough to grapple with them. On they came, pressed forward by hordes of Asiatic tribes, such as the Huns, who pushing onward from the East, seized the territory of the Goths; and these latter, always ready for aggression, were soon beyond the Roman frontiers. Assailed from without, and weakened within by inefficient rulers and an enervated population, the Empire could not stand for long.

## DOWNFALL OF EMPIRE 14-476 A.D. 75

**Alaric.**—Foremost among the chiefs of the Goths was Alaric, whose definite ambition was to rule at Rome on the throne of the Cæsars. He attacked Greece and then Italy, and proved such a daring foe, that the Romans had to strain their powers to the utmost to keep him from the walls of Rome.

In these days the Roman legions which had been left in far-away Britain, were recalled to do what they could to prop up the sinking Empire. But the Britons greatly missed their protection against hostile tribes, and wrote to Rome a series of complaints known as "the tears of the Britons," entreating them to return. The Roman army, however, had more than it could do in its own country. Three times Alaric had appeared beneath the walls of Rome, and twice he had only retired after the city had paid a huge ransom, and had accepted an Emperor at his dictation. The very curtness and silent strength of the man increased the terror of his name. When the Romans tried to frighten him with the numbers of their population, he replied, "The thicker the hay, the easier it is mown."

When they asked him, in dismay at his exorbitant demands, "What then would he leave them?" he answered, "Your lives."

**Sack of Rome, 410.**—But at his third invasion, just a few weeks before his death, the great city of Rome, which had never but once before seen a foreign enemy within her walls, was delivered over to the barbarians, who sacked her completely, carrying off all her treasures and wantonly destroying her palaces, and theatres, and temples, and churches. From this time, although the Empire existed nominally for fifty years longer, her power was dead, and a new element forced itself to be recognised as the chief authority within her boundaries. For a time the Goths ceased to become prominent in Italy, for the reason that they seem to have preferred to form their new kingdom outside Italy, and settled in Gaul, with Toulouse for their capital. But before the middle of the fifth century, this new settlement, with its Roman laws and Gothic councils, had practically replaced the Empire in the West. This kingdom of the West Goths, however, was not to be of long duration. It broke up before the end of the century, and only continued to exist in Spain, where it displaced the Vandals, who passed into Africa and proceeded to utterly destroy the important Roman provinces in that land.



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**The Huns and Attila.**—But a more terrible enemy was darkening the horizon of the Empire. The Huns, under Attila, a savage who hated all manner of civilisation, art or religion, who came of a race who ate their own children, and burrowed in the ground for habitations, first ravaged the Eastern Empire up to the very walls of Constantinople, and then sweeping through Western Europe into Gaul, mingled in the general slaughter and destruction of the cities of Romans and Goths alike. At length he marched in his resistless course upon Rome. For a brief period the entreaties of the Roman ambassadors, among whom was the great Pope Leo, and their generous offers, seem to have prevailed. But only for a time. Returning to the Danube to recruit his forces for an effort which was to sweep Rome from the face of the earth, this terrible man met with a mysterious and sudden death. Without him his army of savages could do nothing, and his empire fell away.

It was impossible that Rome could recover from these repeated blows. Once again the Vandals advanced from Carthage, and sailed up the Tiber, and Rome was sacked for the second time. Twenty years later, her last Emperor, the weak and helpless Romulus "Augustulus" as he was scornfully termed, sat on the throne; but he was merely a puppet in the hands of the Gothic chief Odoacer, who, having forced him to abdicate, made himself king, and formally sent to Constantinople the imperial crown and robe, as a token that the Western Empire had ceased to exist.

Thus the Western Empire, the glory of Rome, died away, and a Teutonic kingdom took its place.

**The Eastern Empire.**—The Empire of the East whose central power was settled at Constantinople, existed for many centuries later. But it affected Europe scarcely at all, being concerned rather with the affairs of Asia Minor and of Egypt, whose city of Alexandria was one of the most important in the world. Alexandria and her mathematicians, Constantinople and her literature, were the marks to which men's eyes turned when they hoped for a return to civilisation and settlement for the West; but from neither of these directions was it to come. For a new Rome was to arise, never to take the position of the former city, but yet to become a great power in Europe by virtue of the religion of which she was gradually becoming the spiritual head-quarters, and another Empire was to be founded, which was to affect the face of Europe.

# DOWNFALL OF EMPIRE 14-476 A.D. 77

## SUMMARY.—CHAPTER XVIII.

- I. *Deterioration of the Emperors.*  
Luxury and Tyranny. Tiberius and Caligula.  
Claudius invades Britain, 43 A.D.  
Christianity at Rome. The infamies of Nero.
- II. Siege and fall of Jerusalem under Titus.  
Conquest of Britain by Agricola, 84 A.D.  
Persecution of Diocletian.
- III. Christian Emperors. Constantine the Great.  
Constantinople becomes the capital of the Eastern Empire.
- IV. *Barbarian Invasions.*  
Inroads of the Goths. Alaric. Sack of Rome, 410.  
Kingdom of the West Goths. Spain.  
The Vandal invasion.  
The Huns and Attila. Second invasion of the Vandals and sack  
of Rome. End of Western Empire.  
Eastern Empire continues to exist at Constantinople.

## QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER XVIII.

- A 1. Give three important reasons which led to the fall of the Roman Empire.
  2. Name three great events of this period, and give a very short account of each.
  3. Make a chart to compare the progress of Greece and Rome in parallel centuries.
  - B 1. Briefly trace the conditions which led to the fall of the Western Empire.
  2. Compare the fall of Rome with that of Greece.
- Read.*—"The Last Days of Pompeii" (Lytton).  
"Helena's Household."  
"The Gladiators" (Whyte Melville).  
"The Gospel in Caesar's Household."

# EPOCH III

## MEDIÆVAL EUROPE

### CHAPTER XIX

#### THE WANDERING OF THE NATIONS AND THE ORIGIN OF MODERN EUROPE

450-750 A.D.

**T**HE Middle Ages of European history date from the breaking up of the once powerful Roman Empire. Many years before this event, the races of the North had begun to shift and wander from their early homes, according as their increasing numbers, or the pressure of some stronger race impelled them. We have seen how they had over-run Italy, and brought about the fall of Rome, and we shall now find that the Empire, as it passed away, gave place to new kingdoms, practically independent at one time or another of the central authority, which still kept its position nominally at Constantinople.

**Italy.**—The first of these kingdoms was Italy, over which Odoacer was the first to call himself king. After thirteen years of rule according to Roman ideas, he was attacked by Theodoric, chief of the Western Goths, defeated, and forced to flee to Ravenna. Shortly afterwards, he managed by a bold attempt to turn the tables so completely that Theodoric fled. Meeting his mother on his hurried flight, she asked him whither he went, and hearing that he was a fugitive, "Flee!" she cried, "what refuge wilt thou find elsewhere?"

So Theodoric returned with fresh spirit, and, in the ensuing battle, made an end of Odoacer and his followers. For the thirty odd years that followed, Italy was at peace; and then once

# The ROMAN EMPIRE

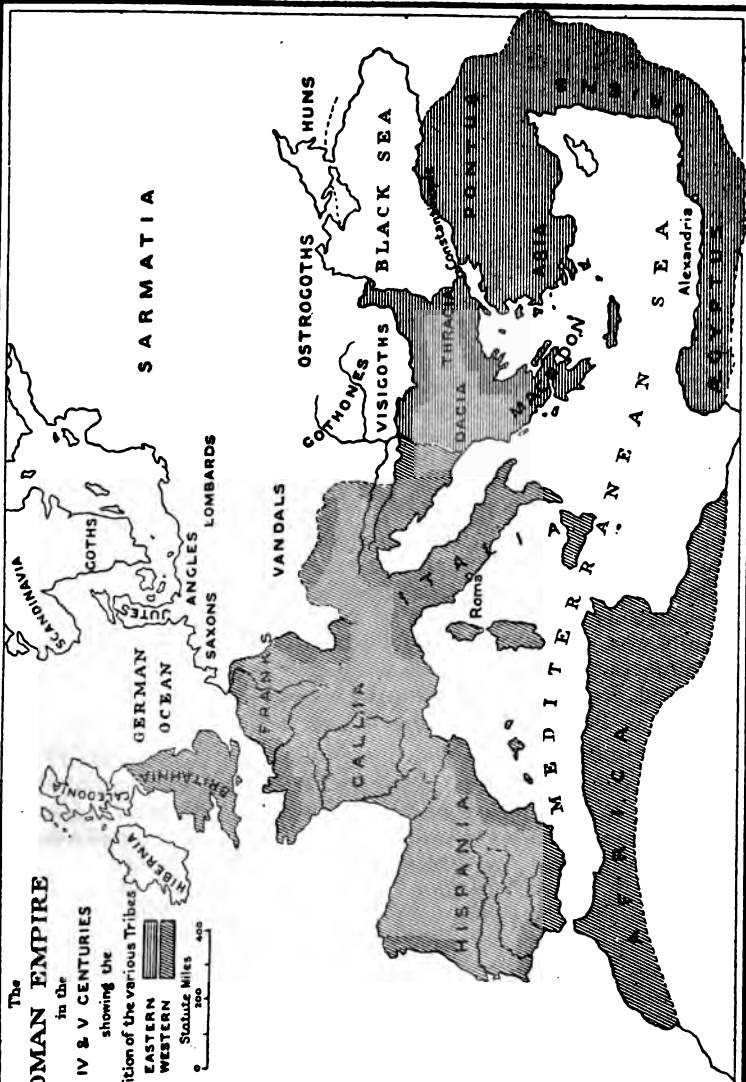
in the  
IV & V CENTURIES

showing the

Position of the various Tribes

EASTERN  
WESTERN

0 200 400  
Statute Miles



again she fell a prey to a new horde of barbarians. These were the Lombards from the banks of the Danube, who proceeded to conquer nearly the whole of Italy.

But Rome still held her own under the sway, no longer of temporal monarchs, but of the Bishops of the Catholic Church headed by the chief Bishop who now began to be called the Pope. An attempt of the Lombards to invade Rome brought Gaul to the rescue, when the help of Pepin king of the Franks, and the determined efforts of the chief Italian cities to free themselves, caused the downfall of this people. But traces of their rule of two hundred years may yet be found in the customs, language and architecture of the North of Italy, whose great plain is still called Lombardy.

**France.**—In the middle of the fifth century, while Odoacer was conquering Italy, a race of Franks was rising into power in North-West Gaul, which was destined to overthrow the power of the Goths, and to become the origin of the French nation. Clovis was the first of their chiefs to turn upon the Goths in Gaul, with enmity fanned by the fact that the latter were believers in the Arian religion (which denied the Divinity of Jesus Christ), while Clovis, after his conversion by his wife Clothilde, became the champion of the Catholic faith. His descendants ruled over part of what we now call France for nearly two centuries, when they became gradually weaker and weaker, until they were forced to give way to Pepin and his descendants, one of whom was the famous Charles the Great.

It was Pepin, you remember, who helped to drive out the Lombards from Italy.

**Spain.**—Spain during this period became the kingdom of the Western Goths, which they ruled with a vigorous hand. Much disturbance was caused there by the turbulence and spirit of revolt shown by the nobility. At length an old Gothic king of eighty years took a bold step and banished two hundred nobles and seven hundred freemen from the land; which had the effect of producing undisturbed peace for many years. Hence Spain was the most flourishing and the most civilised of all the Teutonic kingdoms. But in the beginning of the eighth century, an event took place which shook the kingdom to its very foundations.

During the past fifty years, the Saracen followers of Mahomet had been gradually moving more and more to the westward. They had besieged Constantinople, entered Africa, and their ships now

## WANDERING OF NATIONS 450-750 A.D. 81

began to attack the Spanish coast. They found a powerful ally in the bands of discontented nobles, who had begun again to trouble the peace of Spain. One, Count Julian, acted as traitor to his country, and invited them to invade the land. They burnt their ships behind them, and settled on the country in swarms. For the whole of one week, from Sunday to Sunday, the Goths endeavoured in battle to drive them out, but the strangers conquered, and Roderick, last of the Gothic kings, is said to have been drowned when crossing a river in his flight. Ten years later, the Moors, as those who landed from Africa were called, had spread over the whole of Spain, save the mountain region of Asturias and Castile, where the Christian Goths still held together. For the present we must leave them there, always remembering that they had ever the hope before them of driving out the heathen from the land.

**Germany.**—The Empire of Germany did not exist at this time. Its boundaries were not marked out till the time of Charles the Great, and it was at this period an indefinite region, peopled by mingled Goths, Franks and Latins.

**England.**—These three centuries saw the conquest of Britain by the Jutes, Angles and Saxons, Teutonic tribes coming from a small corner of the vast territory which was washed by the Baltic Sea. Gradually these separate tribes were amalgamated and united until a new people arose, called English, who became, as it has been said, "the one purely German nation which arose upon the wreck of Rome."

The countries of Eastern Europe, Austria, Russia, and the rest did not exist as distinct kingdoms till much later. All were at this time merged into the Empire of the East of which Constantinople was the capital.

**Origin of European Kingdoms.**—Thus we see the origin of the Western kingdoms of Modern Europe. All of them were built more or less upon three foundations. The first of these was the ruin of the Empire of Greece and Rome, whose laws, roads, buildings and language existed long after the Empire had passed away.

The second of these was the great Teutonic race, modified and made distinct in its various peoples, but forming the backbone of each new kingdom. And lastly they arose largely upon the

organisation of the Christian Church, whose methods of government had by this time pervaded the whole of Western Europe.

How these different countries grew and prospered, kept or lost their independence, will be seen in the course of these lessons; but we must remember that their boundaries were not yet fixed and settled. France, for example, was in those days a Teutonic kingdom, embracing part of Germany and at one time part of Spain, within its borders. It was many years before the Latin element came to the front, and the line of demarcation became permanent.

#### SUMMARY.—CHAPTER XIX.

- I. The wandering of the Nations.  
Settlement of distinct kingdoms.
- II. *Italy.*  
Odoacer the chief. Conquered by Theodoric.  
Lombard invasion. They rule Italy for two hundred years.  
Pepin of France helps to drive them out.
- III. *France.*  
Race of the Franks. Clovis, the champion of the Catholic Faith.  
The Pepins succeed.
- IV. *Spain.*  
Kingdom of the Ostrogoths. Turbulent nobles driven out. A flourishing period.  
Invasion of the Moors. The Goths driven to the North.
- V. *England.*  
Conquest of Britain by Jutes, Angles and Saxons.
- VI. Origin of European kingdoms.  
1. The Empire of Rome. 2. Teutonic races. 3. Christianity.

#### QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER XIX.

- A 1. Name the races who took possession of Italy, France, Spain and England from the fifth to the eighth centuries.
  2. What do you know of Clovis, Odoacer, Pepin, Theodoric, Clothilde?
  - B 1. Give a clear account of the basis upon which Modern Europe rose.
  2. Trace the history (very briefly) of Italy, Spain and France from the fifth to eighth centuries.
- Read.*—"Holy Roman Empire" (Bryce).

## SECOND EMPIRE OF WEST 750-900 A.D. 83

### CHAPTER XX

#### THE SECOND EMPIRE OF THE WEST

750-900 A.D.

**Charles Martel.**—The great aim of Charles Martel, the chief of the race who succeeded the line of Pepin on the throne of the Franks, was to unite and extend the scattered conquests of his predecessors, and to revive, in the person of himself or his descendants, the title and position of Emperor. In order to do this, he made an alliance with the popes at Rome, promising to help them against such attacks as those of the Lombards, in return for which they themselves were to be recognised by the popes as the representatives of the temporal power in West Europe.

This Charles Martel, whose surname means the "Hammer," became famous for his powers of fighting. You will remember that the Moors at this time had over-run nearly the whole of Spain, and pushing across the Pyrenees proceeded to invade the kingdom of the Franks. But at Tours they were met by the "Hammer" chief, who so completely defeated them, that they never appeared in France again.

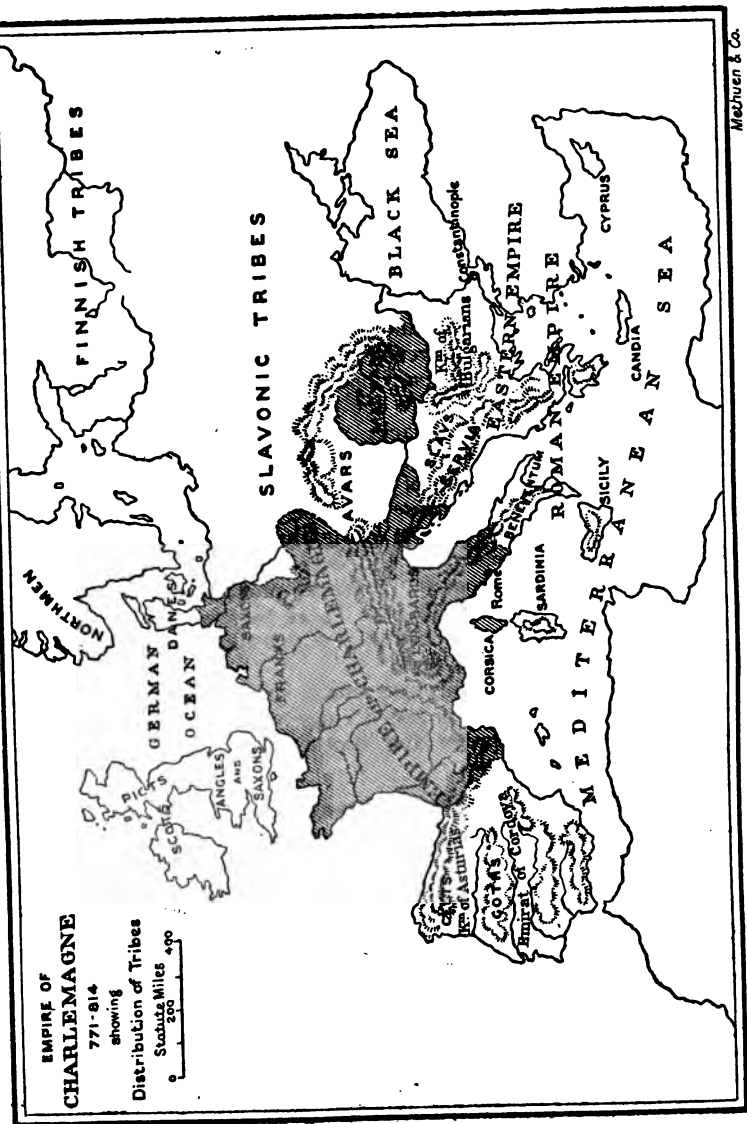
His son Pepin, with his two young grandsons Charles and Carloman, were solemnly crowned kings by the Pope a few years later, and when his father and brother died, Charles became king of the Franks.

**Charles the Great.**—This Charlemagne, or Charles the Great, as we should call him in English, became the one great figure which stood out from all others in the history of Europe at this time. In those days the chief thing necessary to greatness was to be a notable warrior, for the times were so unsettled that the conquest of one day was snatched away the next, and each kingdom was beset in every direction by hungry foes. The two most important enemies of Charles were the Saxons between the Rhine and the Elbe, and the Moors of the South.

Both these races were heathen, and Charles, like his forefathers, took the position of the champion of Christianity.

**The Moors.**—The Moors, although they dared not cross the





## SECOND EMPIRE OF WEST 750-900 A.D. 85

Pyrenees, revenged themselves by harassing the country of the Christian chiefs of the North. Marching upon them Charles forced them back across the Ebro, and claimed the two chief towns of that district as part of France.

On this expedition he is said to have lost young Roland, his nephew, a noble knight, of whom many ballads have been sung. Betrayed by a jealous friend to the enemy, Roland was pressed well-nigh to death by the foe, and with almost his last breath, blew upon his wonderful horn to recall Charles to his aid. Thrice it sounded ere Charles recognised the sound, when exclaiming "'Tis the horn of Roland," he turned and galloped to the spot where the youth lay dead, in time only to take a terrible revenge upon his enemies.

**War with the Saxons.**—The war with the Saxons went on for many a long year. Charles was determined not only to subdue them but to make them Christians, and this latter end he often tried to accomplish by forcing his captives to be baptised. Many dark deeds of cruelty and devastation mark the campaigns of this war, which would take something from the glory of Charles, if we did not remember the character of the savages with whom he had to deal, and the fact that it was necessary to sacrifice the rebellious, in order that the peaceably inclined might exist at all.

At the end of this war, towns, schools, bishoprics arose in the land, and the frontiers of Germany became roughly marked out.

**The Huns.**—A still more difficult war was waged with the Huns who dwelt in the plains of the Danube. Even when whole armies of these troublesome people, who were more uncivilised in their ways than any other tribe of Europe, had been defeated, their chiefs still held out in a circular enclosure or camp, called the "Ring." This Charles attacked, and with the greatest difficulty forced and broke up. When their chief leader saw this, he bowed to superior strength, and declared himself willing to acknowledge the supremacy, and to be baptised in the religion of one who could fight so well.

**Union of the West.**—In the intervals of these great wars, Charles began to set on foot the yet more important work of bridge-building and canal-making. You have but to look at the map of Europe at this time, and to note how widely one

part of Western Europe must have been separated from another by uncivilised tracts of land, deep rivers, thick forests, to realise the extreme difficulty of making any means of communication between the countries of the conqueror and the conquered. But till this could be done, Charles knew too well that any attempt at civilisation would be in vain; left alone they would slip back to their old savage ways, and all would have to be begun again from the beginning. So his great wise mind set to work, first to conquer and then to secure his conquests, and this he did first by making bridges across the vast rivers, such as the Elbe and Danube, by road-making, and by a projected canal, which, by joining the Rhine with the Danube should open up a great waterway of communication with the furthest limits of his Empire. This latter hope was never fulfilled, but it will serve to show the indomitable and ambitious plans of the great Charles.

**Missionaries.**—His next plan of civilisation was to send missionaries, who should carry the Christian religion, with all its softening and civilising influence to the wild and savage tribes he had subdued. Mission stations were planted and became the nucleus of cities, and sometimes the seats of bishoprics.

Many of these missionaries were Englishmen, the very fittest of all perhaps, to teach those nations from whom their own forefathers had come. One, Winfrith of Exeter, afterwards called Boniface, did a wonderful work of this kind, in the days of the immediate predecessors of Charles. He founded schools and abbeys, and taught the faith with a fearlessness that gained many souls. And though he ended his days as a martyr, being cut down by a band of pagan youths who surrounded his tent where he was preparing to baptise some thousand converts, yet the seed he had sown sprang up and bore good fruit in the days of Charles the Great.

**War with the Lombards, 773.**—The last important war which Charlemagne undertook was of a different nature. We have seen how Italy had been over-run by the Lombards, and how Pepin, the father of Charles, had helped the popes to drive them away from Rome. Charles now prepared to conquer them finally, and to bring their power to an end.

After a long winter siege, their last town gave up, their king was taken prisoner, and Charles became ruler of all Italy save

## SECOND EMPIRE OF WEST 750-900 A.D. 87

Venice, and that part of the extreme south which was still held by Greece.

In return for this and for all his other deeds of conquest, the authorities of the Church proposed that the conqueror should appear in Rome, and there should receive the title and honour due to the Emperor of Rome.

**800 A.D.**—Thus on Christmas Day, in the year 800, Charles the Great received at the hands of Pope Stephen the jewelled crown; and the great crowd of mingled races who saw the deed, cried, "Life and Victory to Charles, the most pious Augustus, crowned by God, the Great and peace-giving Emperor of the Romans."

Thus, four hundred and twelve years after the fall of the Western Empire, began the Second Empire of the West, which embraced the modern countries of France, Italy, Germany, Austria, and part of Spain.

**End of Charlemagne, 814.**—Hale and vigorous in his old age, Charles the Great spent his last years in helping on the cause of education, in which he wisely saw the chief hope of the coming race. For some time the tutor of his own family was an English scholar, Alcuin by name.

In his seventieth year the Emperor still enjoyed somewhat violent exercise and especially his favourite pursuit of hunting. But in the severe winter of 814 he caught a chill. Fever and pleurisy followed and he died. He was buried in the tomb he had prepared for himself at Aix-la-Chapelle, being placed sitting upon a marble throne, in his royal robes, with his horn, his sword, and a book of the Gospels upon his knees. There, according to the legend, was found, whole and undecayed, nearly two centuries later, by one who entered the tomb, the form of the Great Emperor of the West.

But what had been made by one man quickly fell to pieces under his descendants, who divided the Empire between them in such a way that, owing to their mutual quarrels and disputes, the separate parts, though they might unite for a time, could never again form one undivided whole.

### SUMMARY.—CHAPTER XX.

- I. *Charles Martel*, "The Hammer." Chief of the Franks.  
Battle of Tours, 732.

II. *Charles the Great.*

His enemies. The Saxons and the Moors.  
 Moors driven beyond the Ebro.  
 Legend of young Roland.  
 War with the Saxons.  
 The Huns.

III. *Union of the Western Empire.*

How accomplished. Bridges and forts.  
 Missionary work.

IV. *War with the Lombards.*

Effect. Charles crowned Emperor at Rome, 800 A.D.

V. *End of Charles the Great.*

His burial at Aix-la-Chapelle, 814. . .

## QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER XX.

- A 1. With what wars, and with what results was Charles the Great concerned?
2. By what means did he establish the Union of the Western Empire?
- B 1. Draw a map of the domain of Charles the Great in 800 A.D.
2. Trace the effect of Charles the Great upon the Europe of this period.

## CHAPTER XXI

"THE MEN OF THE DRAGON SHIPS," AND  
 THE SETTLEMENT OF NORMANDY

800-1000 A.D.

**Character of the Northmen.**—In the north-west corner of Europe lies the peninsula of Norway, a land of mountains and fiords, with an unproductive soil, and great barren tracts to the north.

In this country dwelt the Northmen or Vikings, "men of the Creeks" as they loved to call themselves, though the dwellers in other lands called them the "Men of the Dragon Ships." Brought up in a severe climate, amid the regions of ice-bound coasts and snowy heights, these men soon showed themselves to be a fine hardy race, caring nothing for luxury and ease, and only happy in the free open air, or on the wide sea. Tall and vigorous were they in body, with fair hair, bright blue eyes, and complexions bronzed by air and wind. Their land gave them no encouragement to dig or sow, so they became mighty hunters and fishermen, wresting their food and clothes from the

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sea and mountain side; yet they were by no means uncivilised. They had an innate love of literature and poetry, and their "sagas," or rhythmical chronicles were part of the education of every Viking's son. Nor in their social customs were they behind the rest of the world. Each head of a family had his great wooden house, built with a vast hall which served as dining-room, recreation room and dormitory.

The big log fire crackled in the midst. On a raised platform at one end sat the head of the family in the long winter evening with his children round him, listening to the sagas that some wandering minstrel sang as his payment for his meal. But the spell of the sea was strong upon these sturdy men, and they would soon weary of their comfortable homes, and setting out in their ships, shaped at prow and stern like a dragon's head and tail, would dash through the tempestuous winter seas, and descending upon some unfriendly coast, would carry off fine store of plunder to lay at the feet of their women-folk when they returned home.

During the eighth century, they had been seen harrying the coasts of North Germany and Friesland by Charles the Great, who is said to have wept with vexation at sight of them, either because he had no opportunity of bringing them under his rule, or because he had no followers of whom he could boast that they would in such wise brave the stormy and uncertain ocean.

Their ships were like great birds of prey, or like the dragon of fable itself, as they swooped hither and thither, and the Vikings completed the likeness by wearing the wings of the black raven in their helmets, signifying their love of free unfettered movement. Their training for such a life was severe. No man might call himself champion till he had lifted an immense stone that stood before their king's door. None might call himself Viking till he had taken the triple oath, that he would not capture woman or child, seek refuge in a tempest, or wait to bind up his wounds before the battle was over.

Their two chief gods were Thor the Thunderer, who sent tempest and war upon them, and Balder the Fair, the gentle god who gave peace, and calm skies, and soft weather. Their heaven was Valhalla, where all good Vikings rode and shot, and hunted and feasted as in the days on earth.

**Colonies of the Northmen.**—Bold and adventurous, these

Vikings were not content to have their headquarters in one land. They came upon the island of Iceland very early in their explorations, and settlements were made there. Russia and Greenland became their hunting-grounds. They are said to have touched the shores of America itself, which they called Vinland, or the Vine land. In the days of Charlemagne they were a well-known and dreaded horror on the coasts washed by the North Sea, England, Germany, and the banks of the Elbe and Rhine.

In 810 they over-ran Friesland altogether, but were driven back by Charlemagne. But their eyes were upon the land of the Franks and thither they were soon to return.

**State of France. Division of the Empire.**—After the death of Charlemagne, his great Empire passed into the hands of his son Louis the Pious. But he was far too weak to keep together what his great father had won. The Empire began to be divided, and at his death was split up between his three sons. Of these, the elder Lothar, reigned as Emperor in Italy, and claimed also the land between the Mediterranean and the North Sea on the north and south, including Provence and Holland.

His brother Louis ruled over Germany, then comprising the lands between the Rhine and Elbe. The third son, Charles, ruled over part of the kingdom of the Franks. For France was then split up into several kingdoms, as those of Paris, Burgundy, and Lorraine; and these were not united for any length of time, although they gradually became more definitely fixed as to their boundaries, and emerged as the kingdom of France, between the Loire and the Seine, Lorraine, which then included the modern Belgium, and Burgundy in the South-East. South of the Loire the land was held by powerful counts and dukes, and the king of France had very little power over it.

**How the Northmen came, 885.**—While France was in this condition, the Northmen, attracted by the pleasant climate and fertile soil, appeared at the mouth of the Loire, and made a settlement there. Prospecting round the coast, they presently sailed up the Seine and besieged Paris, but were beaten back by Count Odo, who for his prowess was elected king. For a time they were content to go further afield. Spain and even Italy were visited by them, and great stories of the wealth and magnificence of these Southern cities were told by the blazing log-fires of the North.

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Then another attempt was made one cruel winter, when the French were starving for lack of food on their icebound lands, and perishing of cold. Down came the hardy Northmen, secure in their warm fur coats, and the frozen Frenchmen fell an easy prey. So one settlement after another sprang up along the French coast, but none were recognised as part of the life of the country till the days of Rolf the Ganger.

**Rolf the Ganger in Norway.**—We must now return for a while to Norway, where in the beginning of the tenth century Harold Harfanger, the king, had united the various settlements of the Vikings into one kingdom. He is said to have won his kingship owing to the ambition of the maiden Gyda, who, when he, as a "jarl" or noble, begged for her hand in marriage, answered mockingly, "I will marry no jarl, but a king." Then Harold swore that he would not cut his hair until he had made himself king; and so his mass of yellow curls became a proverb in the land. One of his earliest acts when he became king was to make a law forbidding the Vikings to plunder the neighbouring coasts. But one Rolf the Ganger, so called because he was so tall that he preferred to "gang," or walk, rather than ride the small Norwegian horses, refused to obey, and was banished for ever from the land.

At first Rolf sailed to the Hebrides, thence to Holland, but both these were too bare for his need of plunder, and he proceeded to cast anchor near Rouen in the days when Charles the Simple ruled the land. The inhabitants of Rouen knew enough of Norsemen to know what they had to expect at their hands, and in a panic of terror sent their Archbishop to Rolf to try to make terms. They never expected to see their messenger back alive, and could scarcely believe him when he reported that he had been treated with kindness and courtesy, and that if they would admit the Northmen to their city no harm should be done them. So they opened their gates and Rouen became the citadel of Rolf, or Rollo, or Rou as the Southerners called him from that day.

**Contest with Charles the Simple.**—But Charles the Simple, or rather the nobles who ruled him, could not permit such a calm appropriation of his property. The army marched northward, and found the camp of the enemy pitched just outside the walls of Rouen. Hoping to avoid a battle, and dreading the force of the Viking's arm, Charles sent three envoys to parley, one of whom,



Hasting, had once been a Northman, but had been converted to Christianity, and had settled down as a Frenchman for many years. But he remembered the language of old days and called to the army across the river, "What is the name of your lord?"

"We have no lord; we are all equal," was the reply.

"For what end have you come?" was the next question.

"To make for ourselves a new country," they answered.

"Have you heard the story of Hasting who once did so much evil here?" queried the speaker, to which they answered sternly, "Hasting has made a bad end to a good beginning."

"Will you submit to the King of France?" asked the Count, to which they all shouted out together at the top of their voices, "No!"

So Hasting returned with this news, and either showed his sympathy too strongly with the enemy, or was suspected of turning traitor, for he was forthwith obliged to leave the land and disappears from the pages of history.

In the battle that followed, the French army was cut almost to pieces, and Rollo set to work to harry the land. Whoever opposed him had the worst of it, till the people cried, "The Northmen do as they please! 'Tis the fault of a weak king!"

Ere long they found it to their advantage to put themselves under the protection of this successful warrior, and to pay tribute to him instead of to their lawful monarch. As soon as this was accomplished, all cruel acts and plunder ceased, and Rollo became the strong wise ruler of the greater part of Northern France, with the exception of Paris, which was never conquered.

But he was not acknowledged as over-lord of this district, afterwards known as Normandy, for some years. Then, finding it hopeless to dislodge him, the King of France made a league with him, and Rollo became a Christian, and ranked as one of the lords of the land. Nor did he disdain to do feudal homage for his dukedom, placing his hands inside those of the king and swearing that he was "his man," as was the custom in those days.

**Rule of Rollo.**—Thus did the North of France become Normandy, the land of the Northmen, in which district even now may be traced the peculiarities of look, temper and habit which mark the mixture of Northern blood.

Rollo never failed them as a wise and good leader; his was the name referred to in all quarrels or disputes, or in any case

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of oppression or cruelty, so that the exclamation, "Ha! Rou!" became the watchword at such times and so probably the origin of our word "hurrah." His descendants were not made in such heroic mould. William Longsword, his son, made indeed the sword to be the emblem of order and peace in the land, but his rule was no strong one; he wished with all his heart to be a monk, and so failed as a king.

Not until the days of Robert, surnamed by some the Devil, by others the Magnificent, did the fiery spirit of Rollo live again, and it appeared unbroken in the latter's son, William the Norman, better known as William the Conqueror. It was from the descendant of Rollo that England gained her system of government, her feudal system and her architecture, all of which had flourished in Normandy many years earlier.

**Effect on France.**—It will not be hard to see how great an influence this settlement of foreigners had upon their adopted country. Just when divisions and dissensions were making France weak and unsteady there came this influx of vigorous sturdy life to strengthen and prop her up again.

**Death of Rollo, 927.**—A strenuous life wore out the strength of Rollo before he was an old man. He died in the year 927, and was buried at Rouen, where his effigy in stone may yet be seen.

### SUMMARY.—CHAPTER XXI.

- I. *Characteristics of the Northmen.*  
Their life on sea and land.  
Their ships. Early training.
- II. *Colonies of the Northmen.*  
Russia, Iceland, Greenland. Repulse by Charlemagne.
- III. *State of France in ninth century.*  
Division of Empire. Lothar, Louis and Charles.  
France split up into separate kingdoms.
- IV. *How the Northmen landed in France, 885.*  
Siege of Paris. Visits to Spain and Italy.  
Settlements made on Coast.
- V. *Rolf the Ganger.*  
(a) In Norway, under Harold Harfanger.  
(b) In France. Rouen becomes his citadel.  
Contest with Charles the Simple; the League. Homage paid by Rollo. His wise rule. Effect of Northmen on (a) France, (b) England. Death of Rollo, 927.

## QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER XXI.

- A* 1. Name any settlements made by the Northmen before those of France.  
 2. Tell the story of Rolf the Ganger.
- B* 1. Draw a map showing the divisions made of the Empire of Charlemagne under his grandsons.  
 2. Sketch the character and life of the Northmen and state the effect left by them upon France.
- Read.*—"Scandinavian Sagas" (Longfellow).

## CHAPTER XXII

## THE MOORS IN SPAIN

800-1100 A.D.

You will remember that we took a very brief glimpse at the great event which changed the whole history of Spain in the eighth century. Gradually approaching from the east, the Saracen followers of Mahomet, who, after their settlement in North Africa were known as Moors, swarmed into Spain at the invitation of the discontented nobles, and spreading over the land, drove the little Christian band of Goths who survived into the mountain regions of the North of Spain. Here in the heights of Asturias and old Castile they still held their ground, buoyed up with the hope that one day they would return to their own land. And meantime Spain was in the hands of aliens.

**Effect of Moorish rule in Spain.**—The character of the newcomers was very different from that of the exiled race. They were infinitely more civilised, coming as they did from the East, with its stores of learning and mystic knowledge. The simple Goth, whose skill was confined to that of warfare, gazed in amazement at the things he heard and saw. For the Moors were the first to bring a knowledge of arithmetic into the West, they cultivated a taste for music of all kinds, they studied astronomy and various sciences, especially that of healing. They became therefore the chief doctors, musicians, astrologers and men of learning in the Western World. Moreover they showed themselves to be of open and liberal mind. The Caliph, Abd-Er-Rahman, one of their most famous kings, was a patron of learning of every kind, and was

so noted for his love of justice that it was said that Moor and Christian might meet before his judgment seat on equal terms.

**Cordova.**—The Moors were great builders also, and cities rose under their hands of a magnificence and wealth of which the Goth had never dreamed. Cordova soon became the rival of Constantinople in this respect, and no other city of Europe would bear comparison with it. Within the walls were a series of wonderful palaces—the Palace of Flowers, the Palace of Lovers, the Palace of Contentment, and so forth, all built in varying styles of beauty and luxury.

In every Moorish town were erected magnificent public baths; for the Moors were the first to teach the healthfulness and duty of cleanliness to the Western World. Thus, under the rule of the Moors, the face of the country became utterly changed, and a new spirit pervaded the land, a spirit of ease and luxury and joy in living, which contrasted sharply with the wild and strenuous life of the hardy, simply-living Goths.

**Beginnings of Revolt.**—But meantime, high up in their mountain fortresses, the eyes of the exiles and those of their descendants through two long centuries, were watching wistfully and eagerly for the chance to once more win back the land from these powerful foes, who seemed to belong to another world than theirs.

**The Zealots.**—The first mutterings of the storm were heard in the outbreak of a number of Christians, headed by a young priest named Eulogius, who having hidden their faith for many years now took a totally different line.

By this time much of the population, especially of the district around Castile had become mixed, and it was no uncommon event for a Christian man or woman to marry a Moor. The children of these marriages were not seldom brought up secretly in the Christian Faith. Nor, even if this were discovered, were the Moors intolerant. All they demanded was that no word should be spoken against their own religion.

But under the stirring influence of Eulogius, a little band of priests, monks, and women, from the North, was joined by many young people who had lived for years in peace by the side of their Moorish brethren, and who now made it their duty and their joy to court death by openly reviling the Mahometan faith. It is difficult to account for this sudden outbreak, which greatly puzzled

and displeased the Moors, well content as they were to let the Christians alone as long as they themselves were left unmolested. It may have been simply a rage for notoriety and excitement, or a fit of rebellion against the stronger side, which possessed them. Or it may well have been a real religious impulse to show that the faith of Christ, though hidden and crushed, was not extinguished, was strong enough indeed to be a motive for the laying down the life of its adherents.

Such indeed seems to have been the case with the girl Flora, who, brought up in a Mahometan household, escaped to the Christians, was brought back and cruelly beaten, escaped again, and being finally captured and led out to die, never hesitated to speak out boldly for her faith.

But all the members of the little band of Zealots were not wise. Many of them went out of their way to revile the Moors' religion, in preference to showing the effect of their own in their lives; and martyrs increased in number.

**The Holy War.**—The lapse of years, and a life of ease and luxury were not tending to strengthen the position of the Moors; and soon after the rebellion of the Zealots had been crushed, the Christians of the North, stirred by their comrades' fate, found themselves strong enough to sally forth and meet their enemies in open fight in a place known as the Valley of Reeds. But they were badly beaten and were forced to retire. During the years that followed, however, much disorder and rebellion broke out between the Moors themselves, and so it came about that the inhabitants nearest to the region of the Goths got into the way of appealing to the protection of Alphonso, king of the three regions of Asturias, Leon, and Castile, in return for which they paid him tribute as to a lawful monarch.

This influence became gradually extended, and the Moors, conscious of their growing weakness, were obliged to call in the aid of a tribe of African Arabs, zealots also for their faith, known as the "Saints."

Under their mad onslaught, the Christians lost much of the ground they had gained, but their advent did not tend to settle the land. On the contrary, they stirred up the people to such a state of confusion and disorder, that by the middle of the tenth century it became very evident that the strength of the Moors was waning.

**The Old.**—At this juncture there stands forth as the most prominent figure of Spain, the hero of romance known as the "Cid," or Campeador—the Champion of Castile.

Ruy Diaz—"my Cid" (my Lord) as the old chroniclers lovingly call him, was nothing but a soldier, a warrior whose heart was in his sword-blade; but he possessed the power above all things of becoming a leader of men. With a small band of followers at his back he would carry all before him, so that even the Moors called him in reluctant admiration the "Miracle of God." As long as he was fighting, he seemed to care little whose side he was on, for when we first see him, he was in array against King Alphonso, whose attempts at power had earned the jealousy of many of those who paid him tribute. But having once made him feel his strength, Ruy Diaz went over to him and became his right hand. Such a man, however, had many enemies, and these so poisoned the mind of Alphonso against him, that he was banished from the city of the king.

**Banishment of the Old.**—"Who will go with me?" cried the Cid, when the sentence was passed upon him. And forthwith the flower of the youth of the city seized their arms and stood beside him. "How good a vassal if he had but a good lord!" mourned the people as they saw him depart.

When he reached Burgos he found all houses shut against him, but when, in his anger, he was about to break down the closed doors, a little girl came to him and told him that though all the hearts of the citizens were with him, they dared not open their doors to him in defiance of the king's commands, who had threatened to ruin the city if they did so. So the Cid smiled on her, and, greater in his forbearance than on a battlefield, encamped outside the city walls.

For a time Ruy Diaz fought for the Moorish king against the powerful Count of Barcelona, but he seems to have been gradually convinced of the fact that his life-work was to fight for the cause of the Christians, and so took service under this Count, and turned his arms against the Moors. "And wherever my Cid went, the Moors made a path before him," says the Chronicle:

**The taking of Valencia.**—At length Ruy Diaz conquered the Moorish city of Valencia, and made his home there. By this time the opinions of King Alphonso had so far changed, that he recognised his late vassal as an independent prince. But once

more, jealous counsels prevailed, and Alphonso besieged Valencia, while the Cid harried his lands in return. But when he came again to Valencia he found that his enemy had prevailed and the gates of Valencia were closed against him.

For nine months he maintained the siege, while the inhabitants suffered agonies of hunger and thirst. At length the city gave in, and the stern, avenging Ruy Diaz became once more the kind and well-beloved Cid.

The next few years were spent quietly enough in ruling Valencia, and in keeping quiet the Moors who were in the neighbouring cities. So much of Spain had by this time been recovered, that it was said with some point that "One Roderick had lost Spain, and another (Ruy) should restore it."

Then there came against him a great band of those mad fighters, the "Saints," of whom we have made mention before, and in their onslaught, the troops of the Cid were beaten. Being now old and feeble, the news caused the death of the king; but before he died, he bade his followers not to let the enemy know that he was gone. So, after his death, they dressed him in his armour and bound his sword to his wrist and led him forth on his good charger as though against the foe; and the "Saints" in that battle were put to flight, and soon afterwards left Spain for ever.

Thus did the Cid conquer by death, as in his lifetime he had weakened and destroyed much of the power of the Moors in Spain. We shall see in another lesson how, nearly three centuries later, they were driven altogether from the land.

#### SUMMARY.—CHAPTER XXII.

- I. *The Coming of the Moors, 710 A.D.*
- II. *Character and Effect of Moorish Rule in Spain.*  
     Their civilization and learning.  
     Their buildings. The Palace of Cordova.
- III. *Beginnings of Revolt.*  
     The Zealots.
- IV. *The Holy War.*  
     The Valley of Reeds. Alphonso VI. extends his sphere of influence.
- V. *The Cid.*  
     Champion of Castile—Ruy Diaz.  
     Banishment by Alphonso.  
     The taking of Valencia. An independent prince.  
     Death of the Cid, 1099.  
     Power of Moors weakened.

## QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER XXII.

- A* 1. What do you know of the Zealots, the Valley of Reeds, Alphonso VI., Valencia, Cordova?  
 2. Give an account of the Cid.
- B* 1. What was the effect of the Moorish rule in Spain?  
 2. Explain the part played by the Zealots in the Holy War, and compare with it the Persecution of the Protestants and Catholics in reigns of Mary and Elizabeth of England.
- Read.*—Southey's "Chronicles of the Cid."  
 "The Cid" (Corneille).

## CHAPTER XXIII

### THE RISE OF ITALY

888-1354

After the death of Charles the Great as we have seen, his successors became so weak, that they gradually lost their hold on the countries that had been won by him.

The kings of Italy were both weak and worthless, and one of them, Berengarius, treated the beautiful Adelaide, widow of his predecessor, with such cruelty, that she sent a passionate appeal for help to the German sovereign, from the prison in which she was enclosed and left to starve.

**Union of Germany and Italy.**—So Otho of Germany entered Rome with a great army, married the imprisoned princess, and was crowned Emperor of Germany and Italy, at Rome. But we must not suppose that he ruled over an undivided Italy. This country was entirely split up into a number of different states, with independent governments. Such were the cities of Naples, Florence, Venice, and Capua, over all of which Rome exercised a spiritual power, but neither Emperor of Germany, nor King of Italy, could be said to exercise anything more than a nominal power over them as a whole.

**Struggles between Pope and Emperor.**—The cause of much of the unrest of Italy at this period, was the constant quarrel between the popes and the emperors.

The pope's election had to be confirmed by the emperor; the emperor had no right to that title unless he had been crowned



by the pope. Thus each had a weapon ready to wield against encroaching popes or unfriendly emperors.

So in the eleventh century, when the evil conduct of Henry IV. of Germany caused Pope Gregory VII. to order him to appear before his court and answer for his iniquities, Henry replied by summoning a council and declaring the election of the Pope to be null and void.

Upon this, Gregory excommunicated Henry and released his subjects from their allegiance, and the latter found deposition awaiting him unless he would reconcile himself to the Church within the year. Thus impelled, Henry was forced to make his submission to the Pope, and for that end sought him in the Castle of Canossa, a fortress hidden among the Apennines, enclosed by three rings of walls. At the entrance, Henry was obliged to put off all signs of royal dignity, and to wait barefoot and bare-headed, without food, in the depth of winter, until it should be the Pope's pleasure to receive him to grant his pardon. Thus the "going to Canossa" has become almost a proverb for the triumph of the Church over the State.

It was going too far, however; for Henry at the earliest opportunity, brought in an army and expelled Gregory from Rome. The old Pope died very soon afterwards saying with his last breath, "I have loved righteousness and hated iniquity, and therefore I die in exile."

But his end was more peaceful than that of his enemy, who spent his last days in begging for a morsel of bread at the Church doors.

**Naples and Sicily.**—Meantime, during this struggle between emperors and popes, the different Italian states were fast increasing in power and wealth. Two of these are especially interesting to us; Naples, because it was founded by the Normans, and Sicily.

**1015.**—The island of Sicily had now been for some time in the hands of the Saracens, that same race which was to over-run nearly the whole of Spain. Such was the terror they inspired, that the princes of the towns on the mainland dared not lift a sword against them when they proceeded to attack them, and great was the latter's astonishment when a little band of Norman knights, on their way back from a pilgrimage to the Holy Land, attacked and put to rout a troop of Saracens, who were about

to attack the town of Salerno. This so filled the inhabitants of Greek Italy with awe and delight, that they sent a message to Normandy, begging that some more of these brave men might come over to Italy and protect them. And so it came to pass that the twelve sons of an old Norman knight, Sir Tancred de Hauteville, made their way as pilgrims to the south of Italy, and seized the territory which they colonised as the kingdom of Naples. Soon afterwards, one of the band named Roger, succeeded in taking Sicily from the Saracens, and the kingdoms of Naples and Sicily were united under the name of the two Sicilies.

**Barbarossa, 1152.**—Halfway through the twelfth century the struggle between pope and emperor came to a climax in the time of the Emperor Frederick, known from his red beard as Barbarossa. Proud, ambitious, and full of vigour, Barbarossa would not be satisfied until he was supreme lord of northern Italy. To prevent this, the pope formed a league known as the Lombard League, and for years the struggle raged between their opposing armies. At length, a furious attack was made by the Germans on the city of Legnano, belonging to the principality of Milan.

Nine hundred of the citizens of Milan had by this time come together under a solemn oath either to conquer or die, under the name of the Band of Death. Others prepared to guard the "Carrocio," or symbol of unity which was found in every important state. This was an immense car, drawn by great oxen and containing the banner of the city, a large bell to summon the citizens to its protection, and an altar, from which the Sacrament was celebrated.

**Battle of Legnano, 1176.**—So strong was the German army on this occasion, that the Carrocio was almost taken, when the Band of Death rushed forward, shouting their oath to do or die, and saved the city. The enemy was completely routed, and Frederick himself had a narrow escape for his life. The effect of this important battle was to set Italy almost entirely free from German oppression for nearly seventy years.

**Guelphs and Ghibellines.**—In 1250 the struggle was again at its height, for no sooner did a more than usually ambitious emperor or pope succeed to the crown or the Holy See, than he began to encroach on the power of the other, and the quarrel broke out

anew. Distinct names now began to be given to the partisans in either camp. Those who sided with the Pope were called Guelphs, and those who were with the Emperor were known as Ghibellines, from two party cries used in warfare. Sometimes one got the upper hand, sometimes the other; and those who were at the top trampled on those below them with all their might.

**Conradin and Sicily.**—Gradually the struggle spread to the south, for Conradin, grandson of the Emperor, succeeded to the double crowns of Germany and the two Sicilies.

The Pope, Urban IV., seeing that Conradin was but a boy, sent an army to occupy Naples. Manfred, the lad's uncle, was in command, but could not hold the city, and was forced to flee. Returning, however, with a band of Saracens, he drove out the Pope's army and had himself declared king. Strangely enough, when Conradin demanded his rights, Manfred declared himself to be of the Guelph party, saying that he was only holding Naples for the Pope. The latter, however, would have none of him, and, fearing his strength as an independent prince, offered the crown of Naples to Charles X. of Anjou, brother to the King of France. The latter was wisely disinclined to throw himself into the troubled vortex of Italian politics, but was persuaded to accept the offer by his ambitious wife, Beatrice of Provence.

Advancing upon Manfred, he killed him in battle and seized the city. And now the one hope of the despairing Ghibellines lay in young Conradin, the true heir to these states, the victim of all these plots and counterplots. Buoyed up by youth and indignation, the young prince passed into Italy with a small German army, but was met and defeated by the troops of Charles before he had left the Plain of Lombardy.

Taken to Naples, this poor boy, whose only fault was his endeavour to win back his own, was led to a scaffold erected on the shore of the Bay of Naples, and was there beheaded. "O, my poor mother, what sorrow will be brought to thee by the tidings of my death!" he exclaimed pathetically, amid the sobs of the waiting crowd, who eagerly caught at the glove he flung them, as a call to them for vengeance.

**The Sicilian Vespers.**—Thus Charles and Beatrice obtained their end, and with the help of the Pope became rulers of almost the whole of Italy. But the men of Naples and Sicily had not forgotten Conradin, and they hated the king and queen

and their French soldiers so intensely, that Pedro, King of Aragon, was induced by them to promise to declare war against the French in Italy, when the chance came.

One Easter Monday—a black Monday for Italy—a young Sicilian maiden, dressed in bridal clothes, was on her way to the church, with her relations, to be married. An unusually large crowd had assembled on the holiday to see the pretty ceremony, when from their midst a rude French soldier stepped out and grossly insulted the girl.

This event was like firing a gunpowder barrel. “Kill them—kill them!” cried the crowd, and, turning with their knives upon the bands of Frenchmen who were lolling about the streets, they began a massacre which extended throughout the whole island until evening time; from which fact it has been always known as the Sicilian Vespers.

On hearing of this, Pedro of Aragon promptly threw in his lot with the Sicilians, and a war which lasted for twenty-one years began between Aragon and Charles of Anjou, and ended in Sicily becoming dependent to some degree upon Spain.

**The Popes at Avignon, 1305.**—But the power of France was still strong in the rest of Italy, so strong that the French kings determined to prevent by a bold step any opposition they might meet with at the hands of the popes. By a series of plots and intrigues it was arranged that a Frenchman should be elected pope, and that in future the seat of the Papacy should no longer be Rome but Avignon in France. And there it remained for nearly seventy years.

**Rienzi.**—Deserted by the popes, the city of Rome was left entirely in the power of the nobles, who treated the people with great cruelty and oppressed them on every hand.

At length a bold effort for freedom was made by Rienzi, the son of an innkeeper, but the true descendant of the free Romans of the old Republic, which it was his dearest hope to restore.

His first step was to send to Avignon to beg for the return of the Pope, but finding he was unsuccessful in this, he set on foot a movement by which the people were stirred up to make an effort for freedom. His own part in this was to make fiery, kindling speeches, in which he painted the past glories of Rome and contrasted them with her present weakness. And such an effect was made upon the people that they declared that a

Republic should be formed, of which Rienzi was chosen tribune.

All went well for a time, and Rome lived in peace and a state of good government. Then a great change came over Rienzi. Ambition in its wildest form gained possession of him. He assumed such authority and lived in such state and magnificence, that jealousy and distrust of him arose; and at the end of seven months' experience of the new state of things, he found himself without a single friend, and was obliged to flee from Rome. Once again he returned at the request of the disordered and despairing city. Once again he roused a spirit of anger and suspicion, the city became embroiled in hand to hand contests, and Rienzi, the one patriot whom Rome had seen since the days of Brutus, was killed by a howling mob in 1354.

**Dante.**—Some thirty years before this event there had died in exile the great poet who was to make all Italy famous in the days to come. There had come to this man, in the days of his exile with a band of citizens of the Ghibelline faction, a noble ideal of what his native city Florence might chance to be if once these miserable quarrels might end. And with this ideal picture he mingled the dream of love and beauty and heavenly peace, which had begun for him long years before, when he first saw Beatrice, the "Beata Beatrix" of his great poems, who became to him the guiding star of his life, and inspired him, after her early death, to write his wonderful "Divina Comedia" in which he tells us how he met the soul of Beatrice in Paradise, and was guided by her through the heavenly places, finding there many a bygone hero of old days.

And now we must leave Italy for a time, to struggle to a kind of greatness amidst every disadvantage of civil war and strife.

We shall return to hear something more of the city of Florence which Dante loved and which was to play a conspicuous part in the days to come.

#### SUMMARY.—CHAPTER XXIII.

- I. *Union of Germany and Italy.*  
Otho and Adelaide. States of Italy.
- II. *Struggle between Pope and Emperor.*  
Henry of Germany and Pope Gregory VII.  
The Castle of Canossa. End of Henry.

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- III. *Naples and Sicily.*  
Saracens and Normans. Roger of Sicily and Naples.  
The two Sicilies.
- IV. *Barbarossa, 1152.*  
The Lombard League. Battle of Legnano 1176.  
Independence of Milan and most of Italy.
- V. *Guelphs and Ghibellines.*  
Conradin and Sicily. Manfred seizes Naples.  
Naples taken by Charles of Anjou.  
Execution of Conradin.
- VI. *The Sicilian Vespers.*  
War between Charles and Pedro of Spain.  
Sicily becomes connected with Spain.
- VII. *The Popes at Avignon, 1305.*  
Rienzi and Dante.

### QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER XXIII.

- A 1. What do you know of the castle of Canossa, the Two Sicilies  
Barbarossa, the Sicilian Vespers, Rienzi, Dante, the Guelphs  
and Ghibellines?
  - 2. Give an account of the history of Sicily during this period.
  - B 1. Trace the effect upon Italy of the events connected with (a) Rienzi,  
(b) Dante, (c) the Sicilian Vespers.
  - 2. Give an account of the rise of Naples.
- Read.*—"Rienzi" (Lytton)

## CHAPTER XXIV

### THE HOLY WAR

1094-1272

Towards the end of the eleventh century a great movement began in Europe which was destined to have a very far-reaching effect upon the character of her inhabitants.

This movement was known as the Crusades, a name which is familiar to you all, while many of you have seen, no doubt, the stone or marble effigies of Crusaders lying upon their tombs, with crossed feet and the sign of salvation on their breasts.

**Chivalry.**—The cause of this important series of events was partly the cruelties to which Christian pilgrims were subjected,

as we shall shortly see, and partly the birth of a new spirit in Europe, which spread from country to country and made men eager to take up their arms to help the oppressed and weak, especially when women and children were among the sufferers. This was a great change from the days of the Early Middle Ages, when weaklings and women were despised and trodden down under the foot of the strong. It had come about gradually, perhaps as a reaction from this kind of feeling, partly owing to the spread of the Christian religion, partly as a result of the songs and poems of the troubadours, which were heard in every land, and partly because, as men became more civilised they learnt to feel proud to keep women and children and the poor hurt things that could not help themselves, under their protection.

This spirit was known as the spirit of Chivalry.

**History of Jerusalem, 611-1094.**—Long before the seventh century the Holy Land had been visited by pilgrims eager to see the places where Christ lived and died. And as the belief spread that whoever said his prayers at the Holy Sepulchre was sure of eternal salvation, their number much increased. The noble Churches raised by the Emperor Constantine and his mother Helena, especially that of the Holy Sepulchre, formed a worthy goal for their wanderings, while the silk and spices of the East were no small attraction to those who wished to combine a profitable trade with a pious pilgrimage.

In the seventh century Jerusalem fell a prey to Persia, and ninety thousand Christians are said to have perished. Rome was, however, still strong enough to recover the city, and it had hardly recovered from the blow of the invasion, when the whole of Palestine was conquered by the Mohametan Arabs. These, however, did not interfere with the Christians or their worship. Indeed there is a story told of Charles the Great's visit to Jerusalem, and of the delivery to him of the keys of the Holy Sepulchre by the wise Caliph Haroun-al-Raschid.

**1010.**—But early in the eleventh century a foretaste of what was to come was given by the Caliph Hakem, who set on foot a terrible persecution of the pilgrims, and ordered his followers to destroy the beautiful Church of the Holy Sepulchre and the very tomb of Our Lord. But persecution only increased the number of European pilgrims. The added danger made the thing more worth doing, and crowds kept flocking to the half-ruined Church

in spite of the martyrdom of not a few of their number. But in 1076 a far more deadly enemy appeared upon the scene, and Jerusalem, whose woe and desolation had been foretold more than a thousand years before, fell into the hands of the Turks, who had been gradually pushing westward from Asia. And now a terrible state of things began. Everywhere the Christians were insulted and ill-treated. The grey-haired Patriarch was haled to prison until an enormous ransom should be paid. Each holy place was treated with such insults and contumelies as cannot be described, and the land was stained with the blood of martyrs to their faith.

When these things were told in Europe a feeling of deep indignation was stirred up. But at first it was akin to the helplessness of despair. It needed a strong man to galvanize such feeling into action, which came about owing to the words of a simple hermit.

**Council of Clermont and Peter the Hermit.**—The terrible reports which reached Rome so affected Pope Urban that he gathered a council of kings and bishops to consider what was best to be done. But while they were considering, the people of Europe were lending a willing ear to the words of a man of poor and mean appearance, wrapped in a thread-bare cloak, and riding upon an ass, with a huge crucifix held upright before him, who travelled from land to land, compelling their attention by his piercing gaze and thrilling words. This man was Peter, a French hermit, who, during a visit to the Holy Land, had seen and suffered many of the wanton outrages that were committed upon the pilgrims. He had seen the ground of the Holy Sepulchre wet with the blood of murdered men, he had heard the cry of the women, and had talked with the aged Patriarch, the Bishop of Jerusalem, to whom, when the latter lamented that the Empire of the East was too weak to offer aid, he had replied "The nations of the West shall take up arms in your cause." Hurrying to Rome, Peter easily obtained the Pope's blessing on his enterprise, and so set forth upon his mission. A stirring picture of wrong and cruelty he must have drawn, for everywhere he went the people left their work or their pleasure to hang upon his lips, while tears and sobs broke from them as they heard his moving words.

Then the young men seized their weapons, and the old men got out their rusty swords, and even their mothers and sisters, and wives, and sweethearts, were eager to buckle on their armour



and to send them to take part in the great war which Peter was urging upon them.

Thus when the Council of Clermont had made their decision, they found a great army composed of many nations ready to their hand. So, that civil war and strife might be forgotten, while the fighting men hurried to the East, a Truce of God was declared, which forbade any hostilities to be carried on in Europe during four days of the week ; while the women, children, husbandmen, and merchants who were left behind, were put under the special protection of the Church.

Addressing a vast concourse of people, the Pope made a wonderful speech, in which he solemnly dedicated the warriors to their holy undertaking. And as he described the vast work which they were undertaking, the work of driving the hordes of Moslem from the Holy Land, a deep, loud cry broke forth from the people "It is the Will of God : It is the Will of God."

**The First Crusade, 1094.**—But alas for the fulfilment of men's best desires. A vast undisciplined rabble put themselves under the guidance of Peter the Hermit, and Walter the Penniless, and, impatient of the prudent preparations of their monarchs, set off for the Holy Land. Scarcely had they touched the soil of Syria when the Sultan David came swooping upon them, and deceiving them by a report that another band of their companions had already seized one of his cities, induced them to enter a great plain which he had surrounded with his troops ; and nothing was left of the unfortunate expedition but a heap of corpses.

**Godfrey of Bouillon.**—The leader of the actual Crusade, which started soon after these unlucky beginners was Godfrey of Bouillon, a Frankish Prince whose kingdom was not of such importance that he had to stay to settle it, as was the case with the kings of the rest of Europe.

With him marched the flower of the knighthood of all lands, young men who were eager to try the swords which had been buckled on with the blessing of the Church. But many a difficulty had to be overcome ere the walls of Jerusalem were reached. The Greek Emperor of Constantinople, the head of the Eastern Empire, put every difficulty in the way of their crossing the Bosphorus ; famine broke out in their camp as they lay before the town of Antioch ; but yet in their first real battle with the Turks, the latter were terribly beaten.

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**Siege of Jerusalem, 1099.**—Three years of thrilling adventure and peril passed away before the siege of Jerusalem was begun. In spite of distressing agonies of thirst (for the Turks had filled up all the wells), the Crusaders kept this up with untiring energy. Just as it seemed utterly hopeless to make a breach in the walls, a knight was seen to wave a gleaming shield upon Mount Olivet, just outside the city, "It is St George come to our aid!" cried the flagging soldiery, and returned to their work with such fresh heart that at three o'clock on a Friday afternoon, the first crusader held the Cross aloft upon the walls of Jerusalem. Thousands of the enemy were hacked to pieces, and from this scene of blood the crusaders passed, each in a pure white robe, to offer thanks to God in the Church of the Holy Sepulchre, and to pour out their gratitude also at the feet of the hermit Peter.

Then Godfrey was chosen king, and thus a Christian monarch reigned in Jerusalem.

The interval between the First and Second Crusade is notable for the rise of two famous Orders of Knights. The Knights Templars were a band of valiant men who had banded themselves together, at first to protect pilgrims on their way to Jerusalem, and afterwards to guard the Holy Sepulchre from any breath of harm or insult. The Knight Hospitallers were a similar institution, whose work it was to tend the wounded and plague-stricken in city or battlefield for the love of God.

**The Second Crusade, 1147.**—The Second Crusade, which aimed at the conquest of the whole of Palestine, came to an ignominious end. It started well, under the impassioned blessing of Bernard of Clairvaux, the eager monk who used his great influence with kings and nobles to do with them, what Peter the Hermit had done for the middle classes. Louis of France and Conrad, Emperor of Germany, led the two great armies, and with the former marched his wife Eleanor and a troop of women, armed with spear and shield.

But time was wasted in quarrels with the Emperor of Constantinople, treachery was discovered among the nobles, and a retreat was made to Europe without anything of importance being accomplished.

**Loss of Jerusalem, 1187.**—Forty years later the Turkish Crescent once again replaced the Cross in Jerusalem. Saladin,

the strong Turkish leader attacked the city, which was then ruled by Guy de Lusignan, and after a fierce fight, took the king a prisoner and seized the city. Merciful terms were given to the inhabitants by the generous victor, who dismissed the women and children from the city, and in answer to their tears and supplication returned to them their husbands, brothers and sons, who had been taken prisoners.

But the Cross of Christ was dragged through the mud of the city, and the Crescent flashed from the walls of Jerusalem.

**The Third Crusade, 1190.**—It would be impossible to give you here an account of all the nine Crusades. They are full of interesting events, most of which make us feel very strongly that a great number of men, and a great deal of money were wasted over what might have been done more effectually with a better organisation, and in a spirit of Christian charity.

But the Third Crusade must here be mentioned, not because it was of great importance, but because it was the first in which an English king, Richard Cœur de Lion, took part.

Leaving his kingdom to take care of itself, Richard joined his forces with those of Philip of France and set out for the East. A storm drove the English fleet upon the island of Cyprus, where they were treated so inhospitably by the natives, that Richard delayed to take possession of the island which he sold to Guy de Lusignan, whose descendants remained kings of Cyprus, for three centuries.

**Siege of Acre.**—The first event in the Crusade was the Siege of Acre. But here the growing jealousy between the Kings of France and England so increased that little could be done. A temporary peace occurred at length; the two monarchs acted for once together, and Acre fell. But now a third disputant appeared in the person of the Duke of Austria, between whom and Richard a deadly hatred existed. Weakened by these constant contests, in which of course their followers took an eager part, it soon became clear that nothing could be done to effect the taking of Jerusalem. Ascending a hill from which the Holy City is visible, Richard is said to have turned away his face and refused to look upon the city which he was not worthy to take.

So he sailed sadly away, exclaiming as he stretched his arms towards the receding shore:

“Most holy land, I commend thee to the care of the Almighty!

May he grant me life to return and deliver thee from the yoke of the infidels!"

But he never did return again, and the next English king who took part in what turned out to be the last Crusade in 1270 was Edward I. of England, whose sole success was the taking of Nazareth.

In this last attempt all went ill with the Crusaders. Even Acre their last stronghold fell, and they were forced to sail away with the sad knowledge that all had been of no avail, that the Holy Land was left to the infidels.

**Effect on Europe.**—But the effect on Europe remained. To begin with, if the power of the Turks had not been held in check during these two centuries, there would have been little chance of preventing them from over-running the whole of Europe in their determined progress to the west.

Then a certain ennobling effect was left on Europe by the the *spirit* of the Crusades, though the actual fulfilment of the inspiration which stirred them was often poor and ineffectual. That all classes and ages shared in this feeling of generous sacrifice is seen in the pathetic story of the boy Stephen, who with a crowd of children, determined to fight for the cause of God in 1212, and wandering through France, where numbers of them were lost or left behind, came to a halt at Marseilles, where they waited under the full expectation that the waters of the Mediterranean would be cleft asunder that they might cross on dry land. But two merchant ships offered to conduct them to Palestine "for the Cause of God, and without charge," and then with cruel perfidy, landed them in the slave markets of Algiers and Alexandria. Nor was this the only attempt made by children to do what their elders were failing to accomplish. A German boy, Nicholas, got as far as Genoa with a remnant of his childish host; but most of these set sail for Palestine and were never heard of any more.

The last effect of the Crusades which we can notice was the increased power of the popes. When kings and knights were absent from the land, their power fell naturally into the hands of the Church, and then the Pope and the Archbishops and Bishops came to have as much or more influence in Europe than the kings themselves. And this led to other results of which you will hear later on.

## SUMMARY.—CHAPTER XIV.

- I. *The Rise of Chivalry.*  
Causes of this movement.
- II. *History of Jerusalem, 611-1094.*  
Conquered by Persia. Then by the Saracens.  
Persecution by Hakem in 1010.  
Taken by the Turks, 1076.  
Persecution of Christians.
- III. *The Council of Clermont and Peter the Hermit.*  
Effect of his preaching. The Pope's Address.
- IV. *The First Crusade, 1094.*  
Led by Godfrey of Bouillon.  
Jerusalem taken by the Christians, 1099.  
Godfrey, King of Jerusalem.
- V. *The Second Crusade, 1147.*  
Knights, Templars, and Knights Hospitallers.  
Nothing accomplished.  
Loss of Jerusalem, 1187.
- VI. *The Third Crusade, 1190.*  
Siege of Acre. Acre captured by Richard I.  
Failure of Crusades.
- VII. *Effect on Europe.*  
The Children's Crusade, 1212. Growth of Papal Power.

## QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER XXIV.

- A 1. What were the chief events in the history of Jerusalem from 611-1187 A.D.?
  2. Describe the events which led to the First Crusade.
  - B 1. Trace carefully the effect of the Crusades on Mediæval Europe.
  2. Give an account of the First or Third Crusade.
- Read.*—"Talisman" (Sir Walter Scott).

## CHAPTER XXV

## THE RISE OF THE FRENCH MONARCHY

1180-1483

**The Feudal Barons.**—We have seen what a small portion of modern France was ruled over by the descendants of Charlemagne, and we must now briefly trace the steps by which the old Frankish kingdom grew into the firmly united realm of

France. This took many years to accomplish ; for during the twelfth and thirteenth centuries the power of the feudal barons increased so enormously, that it became equal, and sometimes superior to that of the king himself.

Moreover, for the long period of a hundred years, France was distressed and harassed by a tedious war with England, which much retarded her progress. We shall only have time to glance at the reigns of the kings who were most successful in promoting the unity of France and extending the power of the crown, and those connected with the English wars.

**Philip II., 1180-1223.**—The first of these was Philip the Second, whose youthful ambition was to raise France once more to the height she reached in the days of Charlemagne. The early years of his reign were fully occupied in fighting with his powerful barons, many of whom he managed to subdue. But his chief work was to improve the city of Paris, by paving the muddy and filthy streets and by beginning to build the Louvre, which became for many years the palace of the French kings.

In 1187 Philip spent much time and money upon the Third Crusade, as we have seen ; from which event dated his hatred of the English kings. Richard was too powerful to be resisted, but on his death, Philip took the side of the young Prince Arthur, the rightful heir to England, and after this poor child had been foully murdered, proceeded to seize upon the domains which John held in France. In 1214 the coward John had plucked up enough spirit to enter into an alliance with Otho, King of Germany, against Philip of France. In the battle fought at Bouvines, for the first time in French history, soldiers from every part of France took part, and when, with much difficulty the day was won, the French knew that a great step had been taken towards the union of their nation.

**St Louis, 1226-1270.**—Some years later, a twelve-year-old boy, Louis the Ninth, grandson of Philip, was crowned king. As he was a child, the realm had to be governed by his mother, Blanche of Castile, and the nobles strove very hard to recover their power in the meanwhile. But Blanche managed to win most of them over to her son's cause, and although their power was not greatly lessened, it did not increase during this reign.

Saint Louis, as the king was soon called, was one of the most wise, gentle and religious of men. He loved peace, and so did

not try to destroy the feudal powers by war, but he did much by his firm laws and wise government to bring about a better understanding between rich and poor.

Rank was no longer an excuse for oppression. Even his own brother was not spared, but was forced to return a hundredfold some money and lands he had wrongfully seized upon.

Sitting under a great oak-tree at Vincennes near Paris, the king would call upon all who "had a suit," to bring it before him, and he himself settled the matter according to just principles. It was the brother of this good king who made himself king of Sicily, just before the massacre known as the Sicilian Vespers.

Louis was absent for some time in the Holy Land taking part in the Fourth Crusade, and one may judge how greatly his influence was missed in France, when we hear of the people sending message after message urging him to return. So he returned and ruled France wisely and well till just before his death, when though weak and ageing fast, he started upon another crusade, but died before he reached the Holy Land.

The literature of the *trouvères* or *troubadours* flourished in the days of this good king, who also built many beautiful churches in France, such as the Sainte Chapelle, which was his own special place of worship, and Notre Dame.

**Philip VI. and the Hundred Years' War, 1340-1453.**—In 1328, nearly sixty years after the death of Saint Louis, a discussion as to who should succeed the last king, who left neither brother nor son, was settled by the appointment of Philip of Valois. But the English Edward III., nephew of the dead man, had laid claim to the throne, and only waited an opportunity to declare war against his rival. In the years before this took place, Philip foolishly quarrelled with many of his chief nobles, without being strong enough to subdue them. He also sent help to the rebellious Scots, who had taken up arms against England, and so recklessly brought upon himself and France the beginning of the Hundred Years' War.

**War in Brittany.**—When this was declared by England, Brittany was upon the eve of civil war, which broke out after the battle of Sluys in 1340, the French siding with one noble, Charles of Blois, the English with John de Montfort, his rival. John was quickly taken prisoner, but his wife, Jeanne, held out in the castle of Hennebon on the seashore till the English should

come to her aid. During this famous siege, the Countess Jeanne took an opportunity, when the besiegers were absent or off their guard, to sally forth and burn their tents. Then, seeing that she was cut off from return, she retreated with her little band of followers to a neighbouring castle and bided her time for return. Meantime her soldiers in Hennebon thought she must have been killed.

"Go look for your countess," mocked the Frenchmen, outside the walls; "she is certainly lost, and you will never see her again." But six days later a trumpet blast was heard outside, and the hastily opened gates received their brave countess, who had made her way back through the midst of the enemy.

**Creçy and Poitiers.**—The chief incidents of the early part of the Hundred Years' War are too well known in English history to need description here. Moreover, with the exception of the taking of Calais, such battles as those of Sluys and Creçy, though great victories, from the English point of view, were not of great importance in France. Poitiers, indeed, caused the French king John to be taken a captive to England, where he remained for three years, during which time the poor of France asserted themselves in a way which was to be repeated in the terrible war of the Revolution, four hundred years later. The peasants were the chief sufferers by this long protracted war. They could not sow or reap, for their fields were sure to be ravaged, and their flocks driven off by the enemy. They were suffering, too, from the terrible plague known as the Black Death, and under the weak young regent Charles, they rose in a body, and burnt the houses and castles of their masters, treating them with the same cruelty which they themselves had suffered at their hands. This outbreak was soon put down by the nobles, who learnt from this, however, that their position was not by any means secure.

**Etienne Marcel.**—At this time by far the most powerful man in France was one Etienne Marcel, to whom alone the people looked for help. This man so terrified the Dauphin by having two of his advisers murdered so close to him that he was splashed with their blood, that the weak young prince put himself entirely into his hands, and, for the first time in French history, recognised the importance of the "will of the people."

**Battle of Agincourt and Treaty of Troyes, 1420.**—Meantime



things went from bad to worse in France. We should not expect to find growth or progress in a country involved in constant warfare, but the horrors of bad government were presently increased by the madness of King Charles VI. This tragic event took place in 1492, when the king was riding through a forest, followed by two pages, bearing his spear and shield. Suddenly a wild-looking man rushed out of the trees, and, grasping the horse's bridle, cried out, "King! Go back! You are betrayed!"

It was but the outcry of some escaped lunatic, and the king rode on, taking apparently no notice. But one of the boys fell asleep on his horse, and let his spear fall with a clang on his companion's shield. Turning upon them the king shrieked, "Betrayed!" and fell to cutting and wounding his own followers with his sword. He had become suddenly insane.

In the latter part of this unfortunate man's reign, the Hundred Years' War again broke out, and France, in its then condition, was beaten on every side. Having won the battle of Agincourt, Henry V. managed to seize the greater part of France, which it was arranged by the Treaty of Troyes should pass to his son, Henry, at the death of Charles VI.

But the French king also had a child, and when the father was dead, the sons, one of them an English babe of nine months old, were both called by their respective partisans, the King of France.

The young Henry VI. had powerful uncles who would fight for his rights; and the French were by this time so disheartened by their constant ill-success, that it seemed as though, if they lost their last important town of Orleans, they would give up the struggle.

**Jeanne D'Arc, 1429.**—And now appeared upon the scene the figure of a young girl of seventeen, dressed in white armour and riding a snow-white horse, who made her way inside the walls of Orleans, and announced that she was sent by the Archangel, Michael, for the relief of the city. Fearless and undismayed by the shower of English arrows, Jeanne D'Arc deeply impressed the minds of the rough French soldiers, who were her devoted slaves, while her wonderful success in battle made the English look upon her as a witch. A week after her appearance in the city, the English army dispersed, and Orleans was free.

Jeanne's highest aim was accomplished when she saw the Dauphin crowned king at Rheims, which was easily taken from

the English. She then wished to return to her forest home at Domrémy. But this the French would not allow, fearing for the effect upon the army if her wonderful and inspiring influence was withdrawn. The poor girl however became sad and gloomy and was often heard to mutter, "I shall not live for more than a year."

Her first failure was in her attempt to take Paris from the English. From that time her power over the army began to fade. Leading out her soldiers to a sortie, from the town they were holding against the enemy, they were obliged to beat a rapid retreat to the gates. When Jeanne reached them she found them shut against her, or, as some say, was unable to get in because of the pushing and pressing of the soldiers. It was into the hands of the Duke of Burgundy, then an ally of England, that she had fallen, and by him she was sold to the English. It is an everlasting stain upon French honour that no effort was made to rescue the Maid of Orleans. Her very name indeed must have recalled all she had done for France. But no helping hand was held out in her hour of need, and the beautiful, unselfish life ended at the stake of Rouen, where the English burnt her as a witch.

But her influence over the French army continued. They never lost heart again, and by the end of the reign of the faithless Charles, the English were driven from France.

**Louis XI., 1461-1483.**—During this miserable war, no king had had any chance of pursuing the policy of putting down the power of the nobles and making them loyal subjects of the Crown. But Louis XI., the son of Charles VII., one of the most curious characters in history, resolved that this should come about in his reign.

This Louis was of a crafty disposition, and all he undertook would be done by wile and deceit. He trusted nobody, and never seems to have conceived it possible that anyone spoke the truth, or acted for other than his own ends. But he was extremely clear-sighted, and knew better than any other king the especial needs of France at that time. He began by dismissing all the nobles who had been his father's counsellors, and retaining near him only people of the meanest rank, such as the barber Olivier, whom men surnamed "le Diable," the cook Pierre, and the hangman Tristan l'Hermite.

**Charles the Bold.**—His first quarrel was with his powerful cousin Charles the Bold, Duke of Burgundy, whose aim was

to rule as an independent prince in France. With him Louis played his usual double game. Whilst on a visit to his cousin for the purpose of patching up a reconciliation between themselves, he was in reality stirring up the subjects of Charles to rebel. When the latter discovered this he kept the king as a prisoner in his castle of Peronne, and it took all Louis' ingenuity and tact to free himself from his hands.

Such a man could have few faithful friends, and a few years later we find him in the act of discovering a conspiracy between this same Charles and his own favourite, the Cardinal Balue, a man who is said to have possessed every fault except hypocrisy. This unfortunate Cardinal was condemned to be hung up in an iron cage for ten long years.

Nobody felt that he was safe from suspicion and summary execution at the king's hands. He used to make a private sign to Tristan the Hangman, when some enemy he wished to remove was in the room with him, and at once without trial the unfortunate was seized and hung on the nearest tree.

No wonder that the last days of such a king were full of terror and suspicion. Not even his own children were allowed to visit him, and he died a prey to superstitious horror.

None could love a king like this, but many feared him. And thus the power of the crown increased very rapidly. By his victory over Charles of Burgundy, the strength of the feudal barons had been much decreased, and by the end of the reign of Louis XI., feudalism may be said to have become a thing of the past. The condition of the peasants however remained most miserable, and it was long before anything was done to help them to a better state of things.

#### SUMMARY.—CHAPTER XXV.

##### I. *The Feudal Barons.*

Their power in France.

Philip II., 1180-1223. His aim.

The Third Crusade.

Battle of Bouvines, 1214, is first step towards unity of France.

##### II. *St Louis, 1226-1270.*

Influence over the Barons.

Fourth Crusade. Reform of Louis IX.

##### III. *The Hundred Years' War, 1340-1453.*

Causes. War in Brittany. Jeanne de Montfort.

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Crecy and Poitiers. Etienne Marcel.  
Battle of Agincourt and Treaty of Troyes. Madness of Charles VI.  
Two kings of France.

### IV. *Jeanne D'Arc*, 1429.

Siege of Orleans. Fails to take Paris.  
Death of Jeanne.

### V. *Louis XI.*, 1461-1483.

Quarrel with Charles the Bold.  
Character of king. What he did for France.  
End of feudal baronage.

### QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER XXV.

- A 1. What were the two great objects of the kings of France during this period?  
2. What was done in these directions by Philip II., Louis IX., Charles VI., Charles VII., Louis XI.?  
B 1. What effect had the Hundred Years' War on France?  
2. Trace the development of the power of the Crown during this period.  
*Read.*—"Quentin Durward" (Scott).

## CHAPTER XXVI

### SWITZERLAND AND HER STRUGGLE FOR FREEDOM

750-1386

Surrounded by a guard of lofty mountains, the little country called Helvetia by the Romans had become part of the Empire, only when the latter was tottering to its ruin.

When the Second Empire of the West was formed, it fell, with what we now call Germany, under the rule of Charles the Great, and was so favoured by him that Zurich became the chief residence of the Emperor, and many of the miraculous legends that gather round his name are connected with this spot.

When the Second Empire fell to pieces, as we have seen, in the hands of Charlemagne's successors, Switzerland remained for a time under subjection to Germany, which state of bondage became most definite under the iron hand of the Emperor Barbarossa. Later on, however, dissensions and disputes in Germany caused the little country to be split in half, the eastern portion falling to

the lot of Rudolf, Prince of the House of Habsburg or of Austria, who was about to be chosen as King of Germany; and the western to Peter of Savoy, uncle of Eleanor, wife of the English king Edward III.

**Peter of Savoy rules part of Switzerland.**—But Peter of Savoy had higher ambitions than to rule over a small portion of Switzerland. As a youth he had been placed in the Church by his father, but when he came of age he cast away his priest's garb, and began to mingle freely in the affairs of Europe. So much had he to do with Italian and English affairs that men believed he aimed at an empire of his own and called him the "Second Charlemagne." But Switzerland was left more and more to his rival of Habsburg, and began to feel the oppression of a tyrant's heel.

**Character of Swiss.**—Deeply enshrined in the hearts of these mountain folk was an instinct which cried out for freedom and independence. Other countries had been glad of conquest, and had flourished and improved under their conqueror's hand. But the Swiss, breathing the free air of the mountain tops, could only live in a state of freedom; slavery and even submission to a foreign power was worse than death. Left to themselves, their little cantons produced all that was required by the hardy mountaineers; while their few cities were by no means behind the rest of the world in civilization and progress. They were essentially a pastoral race, with no innate love of fighting for its own sake, but on occasion, as we shall see, they could handle the battle-axe as well as the scythe.

**League of Perpetual Alliance, 1291.**—It was the tyranny of the governors sent to overlook them by the House of Habsburg that first caused the League of Perpetual Alliance to be formed in 1291. One of these governors, Gessler by name, was the object of their peculiar hatred. Riding with Werner, a noble Swiss gentleman, he passed the house where the latter lived, and admiring the firm grey walls, built to resist the wild winters of that region, asked whose it was.

With stern self-control, for he guessed the thought that lay beneath the question, Werner answered, "The holding is the king's, your grace's, and mine."

"Can we suffer the peasantry to live in such fine houses?" scoffed the Austrian as he rode on.

Shortly afterwards, Landesburg, the second governor, coveted the cattle of one Arnold, whose little farm had been tilled with difficulty by these same animals. As his young son watched the beasts being yoked and driven off, with sullen fury, the sight of his father's powerless wrath overcame him, and striking the governor's servant with his stick, he broke one of his fingers. At once his father hurried him from the spot and made him flee for his life. But when Landesburg heard of his escape, he seized upon old Arnold, shut him up in prison, and put out both his eyes.

When this cruel deed was made known, the three men, young Arnold, Werner, and Walter, who represented the three Forest Cantons of Uri, Schwytz and Unterwalden, met in secret and darkness on the mountain side, and swore a solemn oath not to rest until all Switzerland had joined in a League of Perpetual Alliance, in order to throw off the tyrant's yoke. "One for all and all for one" became their motto; and as they held each other's hands and gazed into the dark heavens above them, suddenly the rising sun appeared over the top of the mountain, and shed a ray of encouragement into their heavy hearts.

**William Tell.**—While the League was being silently formed and men were being drilled in the secret fastnesses of the mountains, a new development took place. As though he meant to drive the people to revolt, the tyrant Gessler had set up his hat in the market-place of the town where he lived, and ordered all men to pay obeisance to the same. In the folk-lore of the country we read that William Tell, a sturdy country gentleman, took no notice whatever of hat or mandate, and his proud eye and independent bearing quickly brought upon him the attention of the governor.

Ordered to obey, Tell calmly replied that were he to obey, he would not be in his senses and so would no longer be himself. Enraged at this defiance, Gessler invented a fiendish form of punishment. Knowing that the men of that canton were famous for their archery, he ordered the young son of Tell to be set up in the market square, with an apple on his head. If he succeeded in hitting only the apple, he should go free, if not, he should be imprisoned. At first Tell stood motionless, but as he gazed at the child's bright face and fearless smile, he seized his bow, and the apple fell in half. The governor applauded, but stopped abruptly as Tell, turning fiercely upon him declared that, had he failed, his second shaft would have pierced Gessler's heart.

"For this speech," cried the governor, "will I throw thee into a dungeon, where neither sun nor moon shall shine upon thee!" Ordering him to be bound and put into a boat, Gessler entered it and bade his attendants row to a castle on the further side of the lake. But a great storm arose, so that the terrified boatmen knew not where they were, and feared to be dashed against the rocky sides of the lake. Tell alone knew their whereabouts, and learning this he was unbound and ordered to steer the boat to the nearest harbour. But he conducted it instead to a steep and rocky landing-place known only to himself, seized bow and arrows, leaped ashore, and was lost in the darkness. When the storm cleared, the boatmen pulled to land, and Gessler determined to ride back to his domain. And as he rode, an unerring arrow sped its way from behind a rock and sheathed itself in the tyrant's heart. "This is Tell's shaft!" he gasped, and died.

**Siege of Zurich.**—At once the House of Habsburg determined to punish the bold deed. An army was raised, the command of it given to Duke Albert, and a march was made upon Zurich, the inhabitants of which had risen in revolt. The Duke expected to find a handful of men within the city, and was astounded to find the gate closed, and awaiting him in the distance, a vast array with shining armour and banners glittering in the sun. He rapidly withdrew for reinforcements, and so did not discover that the army was composed of the women and children of the city, with sham weapons and waving garments, who by this ruse, saved the city until their husbands could come to the rescue.

**Battle of Morgarten, 1315.**—A battle must come sooner or later, however, and with this hope in view, the valleys filled with troops of men with rude weapons in their hands, but stern discipline and deep determination in their hearts.

Duke Leopold led the campaign against them, and scorning to fight with a few country farmers, unskilled in warfare, bade his formidable army look at the matter as a punishment rather than a contest.

But not knowing the country, he chose the longer and harder road, and approached the heart of the district with his lines carelessly marshalled, and in bad array, till they reached the slopes of Morgarten, between lake and mountains. As they began to mount, a sudden storm of rocks, stones, trunks of trees

and men poured upon them, from a little band which had been watching their approach from the ridge. The result was disastrous for the Austrians. They never had a chance to recover their position. The flower of their nobility perished either in the lake, towards which they were driven, or on the mountain side.

Leopold rode back "looking like death and quite distracted," and throughout all Germany "the sounds of joy and glory were changed into wails of lamentation and woe."

This battle, the "Swiss Thermopylæ," as it has been called, though in its issue it differed widely from that fought by Leonidas, had the most far-reaching effects. It taught the House of Austria to respect the Swiss, and, more important still, it taught the Swiss to respect themselves and to know their own power. The Forest Cantons formed the nucleus of a cluster of Free States, and those which had formerly held timidly aloof, now came forward and claimed their alliance and protection.

**Austria and the Swiss Confederation, 1386.**—It was many years before Austria dared to measure her strength again with the mountaineers. But the sight of the Swiss Confederation of freedom-claiming states roused her in 1386 to make one more attempt to conquer the country before they lost it for ever.

**Battle of Sempach, 1386.**—In order to draw off the attention of the Swiss, the Austrian army marched to attack Zurich, but meantime the main army was marching secretly to Lucerne. Fortunately for them, the ever-watchful Swiss became aware of this, and striking across country, met the enemy quite unexpectedly at Sempach. Here in spite of the steep hillsides, the young nobles, grandsons many of them, of those who had fought at Morgarten, pleaded that the engagement should not be postponed. Doubtless they thought it would be but a short one, seeing that fifteen hundred ill-armed men were face to face with six thousand lancers, so sure of victory that the infantry was sent to the rear; and the cavalry dismounting, pulled off the curved beaks, which it was then the fashion to wear at the ends of their shoes, lest they should catch in the long grass of the field which is called the "beak meadow" to this day.

**Arnold von Winkelried.**—At first the tide of battle turned against the Swiss. When he saw this, Arnold von Winkelried, perceiving that it seemed impossible to break the close ranks,



cried, "I will cut a road; take care of my wife and children!" and rushing upon the bright line of spears, gripped as many as possible with his arms, and so in the confusion, made a way by which his countrymen could cut their way. The Austrians began to waver; they turned and fled to where they had left their attendants with the horses. But these faithless followers, fearing the battle was lost, had ridden home.

Great was the slaughter upon that day. The battle of Sempach may indeed be said to have sealed the freedom of Switzerland.

#### SUMMARY.—CHAPTER XXVI.

- I. *Early history of Helvetia*—Switzerland.  
Charles the Great at Zurich.  
Fall of Empire brings Switzerland under German rule.
- II. *Division of Switzerland.*  
Peter of Savoy. The House of Habsburg.  
The tyrant Gessler.  
Walter, Werner, and Arnold form the League of Perpetual Alliance, 1291.  
William Tell. Death of Gessler.
- III. *Battle of Morgarten, 1315.*  
Siege of Zurich abandoned. The women's army.  
Duke Leopold leads the Austrian army.  
Defeat of Austrians.
- IV. *Confederation of Swiss States formed.*  
Austria marches against them.  
Battle of Sempach, 1386.  
Freedom of Switzerland assured.

#### QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER XXVI.

- A 1. Name the founders of the League of Perpetual Alliance, and say how it came to be formed.
2. Give dates and names of the two great battles of the Swiss Independence.
- B 1. Write an account of the Swiss War of Independence, and account as far as you can for the keen desire for freedom shown by the Swiss people.

*Read*.—"Switzerland" (*Story of the Nations*).  
"Wilhelm Tell" (Schiller).

## CHAPTER XXVII

### THE TAKING OF GRANADA IN THE DAYS OF FERDINAND AND ISABELLA

1300-1500 A.D.

When we had our last glimpse of Spain in the early Middle Ages, we saw how by slow degrees the Moors had been driven back southwards, until the kingdom of Granada was all that remained to them of their once almost unlimited power; and even within the limits of Granada, many of its Moorish kings had got into the habit of paying tribute unquestioningly to the King of Spain.

For about two hundred years (1150-1350) no important event marks the history of the country. There were the usual quarrels between the different kingdoms which still existed and as to the succession of each, one of which brought Spain into connection with England. It began with strife between Peter the Cruel, who for his harsh government had been driven from the throne by his brother, Henry of Trastamare. The help of English arms was sought by Peter, and the Black Prince, longing to try again those arms which had been so successful in France, during the past twenty years, won for him a great battle of Navarete. But Peter did not long oppress Spain by his cruelty, being shortly afterwards murdered by his brother.

**Portugal.**—Portugal, meantime, began to come forward as a pioneer in the work of exploration. She discovered the islands of Madeira and the Azores, and made settlements both in India and Africa. And thus the way was prepared for a still greater discovery, the credit of which was gained by Spain. But just one year before this took place, there happened the notable event known as the Taking of Granada and the fall of the Moorish power.

**Ferdinand and Isabella.**—In 1481 the two crowns of the kingdoms of Castile and Aragon became united by the marriage of Ferdinand of Aragon with Isabella of Castile. Under the wise and firm rule of these "Catholic Kings" as Europe called them,

Spain rapidly became the first power in Europe. Two great events were the cause of this. The one was the taking of Granada and the destruction of the Moorish power in Spain, by which means, for the first time in its history, that kingdom became united under the power of one monarch. The other was the discovery of the West Indian Islands by Columbus, which prepared the way for the discovery of America and the Conquest of Mexico by Cortez in the sixteenth century; by which means Spain became not only the most powerful, but also the richest country of Europe.

**The Taking of Granada.**—Shortly after the accession of the young king and queen, a Caliph ruled in Granada who not only resented the annual tribute paid by his predecessors to the King of Spain, but even attempted to invade the territory of Castile.

"Tell your sovereign," said this haughty chief to those who came to collect the yearly tax, "that the kings of Granada who paid tribute are dead, and there is nothing left of them but their sword blades."

Such an answer amounted to a declaration of war, and Ferdinand was more than ready.

**Zahara.**—The first movement took place unexpectedly at Zahara, where the inhabitants were peacefully sleeping, when an awful cry arose, "The Moor! The Moor!"

In a spirit of Eastern cruelty which none of his predecessors had shown, the Caliph ordered a general massacre to be made of men, women, and children, and the city was destroyed. But this act had the effect of making all Spain vow to take a bitter vengeance on the cruel conqueror, and the kingdom of Granada was at once attacked. Even its own inhabitants realised what was to come upon them, for the dirge of woe was sung within the walls: "Woe to Granada, the hour of its desolation is at hand." "The ruins of Zahara will fall on our own heads. The citadel of the Alhambra will be conquered by Christians." "Woe to my Alhambra, the key of Granada!"

**The Mountains of Malaga.**—The two opposing armies first met face to face in the mountains which surround Malaga, which town the Spaniards were besieging. The guides who were leading the army of the Christians to the place where they expected to meet the Moors were traitors, and led them instead into the very heart of the mountains. As they scrambled along, weary and hungry,

## TAKING OF GRANADA 1800-1500 A.D. 127

suddenly a rush of well-armed men beset them on all sides. Setting their horses to the steep slopes of the mountains the Spaniards hoped to escape; but from the heights above fresh hordes poured upon them, so that penned in like sheep, the whole army was massacred. If anything more was needed to rouse implacable hatred towards the Mahometans the cry had but to be raised, "Remember the mountains of Malaga," and man and boy were only too anxious to seize their arms and rush to the battlefield.

**Boabdil.**—Boabdil was now the king of Granada, a weak and irresolute man, nicknamed the "Unlucky." A secret march made by him at dead of night upon the beleaguering host was intercepted and the forces almost cut to pieces; and the few remaining fugitives returned to Granada with the report that their king was taken. This Boabdil seems to have anticipated, for he moans, "Verily it was written in the Book of Fate that I should be unlucky, and that the kingdom should come to an end under my rule!"

With singular want of spirit he gave himself up to fate, and became the vassal of Ferdinand and Isabella, holding Granada under that condition.

The Moors were infuriated with him, and he was forced to share his kingdom with another Caliph, made of sterner stuff. But the quarrels between these two and their partisans rendered the kingdom weaker every day.

**Taking of Malaga.**—Malaga, however, still held out. When the besiegers approached the walls, torrents of boiling pitch, stones and arrows poured on them from the undaunted inhabitants. The Spanish soldiers flagged somewhat, but their brave and determined young queen herself appeared in the camp, and cheered their drooping spirits. Inside, the people were starving, and mothers were casting down their poor little babies before the governor's house, saying they could not bear to hear them cry for food any longer.

At length the city gates were opened, and the besieged Moors were fighting with each other to be the first to buy food from the Christians.

**Granada.**—Still the city of Granada remained, from which the wretched Boabdil was forced to deliver defiance to his former master. "If you want our arms you must come and take them,"

was the message dictated by the courageous Moors inside the city.

At first they were encouraged by the sight of a fire which consumed the whole of the Spanish camp. But the news of the city of Santa Fé, which the indomitable Queen Isabella ordered to be built in its stead within eighty days, showed the Moors with what spirit they had to deal. They did their best, but even the bravest cannot stand against the pressure of hunger. One day, a red-letter day in the history of Spain, the king and queen entered the walls of Granada, and the keys of the famous palace of the Moorish kings, the Alhambra, were placed in their hands. The faithless Boabdil was banished, and although the Moors were allowed to dwell therein and practise their own religion, their day was past for ever. The "last sigh of the Moor" was breathed when Granada ceased to be a Moorish kingdom, and the greater part of her inhabitants retired to Spain.

**Columbus.**—The story of Columbus is one which adds to both the glory and the shame of Spain. Disgusted at the perfidy of the King of Portugal, who listened to his plans of exploration, only to send a ship on a private expedition of his own along the route marked out, this Genoese sailor made his way to Spain. There he waited for a long seven years, for both king and queen were too much engaged in the war against the Moors to pay him any attention. But when Granada was once taken he pushed his way into the presence of the queen in that ill-fated city, and succeeded in rousing her deep interest in his plan to sail across the Atlantic and so find a new road, as he shrewdly imagined, to Asia. For in those days other men still thought the world was flat, and no conception of the great continent of America had entered their minds. The queen promised to sell even her jewels in order to fit out the expedition, but men were harder to find than ships, and it was with much difficulty that a crew was gathered together for the three little vessels. For the first two months of the voyage the way was full of trouble for Columbus. Mutiny and discontent reigned supreme.

Then hope began to spring in the coward breasts of the crew, as birds were seen to perch upon the rigging, and carved sticks and green-leaved branches floated by.

**Discovery of the West Indies.**—On the 8th October 1492, just before dawn, a moving light was seen by the captain of the

## TAKING OF GRANADA 1300-1500 A.D. 129

little fleet, and at sunrise the land they longed for was before them.

Kneeling upon the soil of what we now know as the Bahama Islands, Columbus gave thanks to God, and solemnly planted the flag of Spain. The natives received them kindly, and when several other islands had been discovered, Columbus brought the news back to Spain. A great reception awaited him. All the nation turned out to welcome the man who was the first to plant the Spanish flag beyond the seas.

In six months' time he returned, as Admiral of Spain, with a large number of colonists to found settlements upon the islands.

Among these settlers, however, jealousy and dissension ran rife. Finding themselves unable to become rich in a day, without any exertion on their part, the colonists turned upon Columbus and sent such unfavourable reports back to Spain that the king sent a commissioner named Bobadilla to take his place. Filled with selfish ambition, the latter listened only too readily to the accusations made against Columbus, and the great discoverer was sent to Spain loaded with chains.

But the womanly heart of Isabella was open to the story of his cruel wrongs, and by her he was released from prison and sent once more upon an expedition to the West. This, however, turned out to be a failure and Columbus returned to Spain to die in disgrace and poverty. For his true friend, Isabella, was now dead, and the face of Ferdinand was turned away from him. Shame indeed on Spain that the man who laid the whole foundation of its future wealth and unlimited power, should receive such treatment at the hands of the country he had adopted!

Thus did Spain, by destroying the power of the Moors and by the discovery of the riches of America, become a first-rate power in Europe. We shall see how in later days this power began to wane before the opposition of the younger strength of England.

### SUMMARY.—CHAPTER XXVII.

#### I. *State of Spain, 1150-1380.*

Quarrels between the several kingdoms.

Peter the Cruel and Henry of Trastamare.

The help of Edward the Black Prince called in, 1366.

Battle of Navarete.

Portugal comes to the front as navigator and discoverer.

#### II. *Ferdinand and Isabella.*

Crowns of Castile and Aragon united in 1481.

III. *The Taking of Granada.*

Revolt of Moorish king. The seizure of Zahara.  
 Massacre of Christians in mountains of Malaga.  
 Boabdil the Unlucky becomes vassal of Spain.  
 The Siege of Malaga.  
 The gates of Granada opened. The keys of the Alhambra.

IV. *Columbus.*

Treatment of Portugal and Spain. The queen's aid.  
 Discovery of West Indies.  
 Charges brought against Columbus. Bobadilla supersedes him. His poverty and death.

## QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER XXVII.

- A* 1. What do you know of Boabdil, Isabella, Peter the Cruel, Bobadilla, Zahara, Navarete, Malaga, the Alhambra?  
 2. In what way did Spain become a first-rate power?
- B* 1. Trace clearly the effect on Spain of the Taking of Granada and the Voyages of Columbus.  
 2. Describe the main incidents in the taking of Granada.
- Read.*—Washington Irving's "Taking of Granada."  
 (*Story of the Nations*) "The Moors in Spain."  
 Prescott's "Ferdinand and Isabella."  
 W. Irving's "Life and Voyages of Christopher Columbus."

## EPOCH IV

### THE PERIOD OF THE RENAISSANCE

#### CHAPTER XXVIII

#### THE RENAISSANCE

1450-1550 A.D.

#### **Taking of Constantinople, 1453.**

**I**N the midst of the fifteenth century an event took place, which though it seemed at first to affect only one city of the far off East, yet had a great and far-reaching influence over the countries of Western Europe. This event was the taking of Constantinople by the Turks. You will remember that before the fall of the Roman Empire, a new seat of government had been formed at Constantinople, which from its position quickly became deeply impressed with the spirit of the old Greek world. The Greeks had lost their military and political glory, but they still possessed the treasures of their learning and literature. At the time when Western Europe was being gradually formed into a new Empire by Charlemagne, and men's minds were full of warfare and bloodshed, the Greeks of Constantinople were quietly and steadily increasing their stores of knowledge and encouraging men of learning to settle there. But when the power of the Church began to increase in the West, the patriarchs of the East showed their sense of independence and isolation still more clearly by separating themselves and their followers from the Roman Church on a certain point of doctrine, and henceforth existed under the name of the Greek Church.

The first blow which shook the intellectual calm of the Eastern capital was the attacks of the Saracens, who you remember were



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now making their way towards the West. They were unsuccessful however, and Constantinople became for a time a tower of strength and protection between Western Europe and the troops of Saracens and Turks who were pressing forward from Asia. Then a most unlooked-for event took place. The antagonism between East and West became so marked that when the armies of the Crusaders would have passed through, the Emperor refused them admission (1203). There were many reasons for this. The lawless conduct of the Crusaders and their reckless plunder were bad enough, but they also interfered so far with Eastern affairs as to help an Emperor who had been deposed, to regain his position.

This they actually accomplished, and when the Greek inhabitants of the city revolted, they besieged Constantinople, and became its masters in the beginning of the thirteenth century.

For nearly sixty years the supremacy was held by the Western Power, and meanwhile the Eastern Empire was cut up into various small states, some of which were held by princes of the West, a few by Greek rulers who still clung to the title of Emperor. At length the hold of the new-comers grew weak. Fresh interests seized upon them. The Eastern World was too far removed from the West to be conveniently managed, and a Greek prince once again ruled in Constantinople (1261).

But his power was very much less than it had been, for the Empire was still disintegrated, cut up into new dominions, many of which had become quite independent of the Emperor.

**The Ottoman Turks.**—Some twenty years before the return of the Greek authority in Constantinople, a new invasion of Asia Minor began at the hands of the Ottoman Turks under their leader Othman. Gradually these new-comers absorbed the whole of the provinces of the Empire in Asia, and commenced to attack the coasts of Europe. Probably the danger in which they stood was scarcely realised by the Greeks, for these Turks possessed more strength and stability, and more determination to conquer than any other invading race, and their power has lasted right up to our own times. Little by little they seized upon the separate states, took Hadrianople and made it the temporary capital of what was to be the Ottoman Empire, and made a ring round Constantinople and the territory close to the walls of that city. Meantime they established a firm rule over the Christian

# EUROPE AT THE RENAISSANCE

English Domains .....  
 Domains of France .....  
 States of the Papacy .....  
 Countries inhabited  
 by Infidel Races .....

0 200 400  
 Statute Miles



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inhabitants of the conquered territory. One of their demands was that a yearly tribute of young boys should be paid to them. At first a terrible rumour was spread that these Christian children were killed and eaten by the infidel Turks. But in reality these boys were trained as soldiers, and forgetting the habits of their earliest years, became the famous "Janissaries" or "New Soldiers" of the Ottoman army. For years Constantinople was doomed, but not destroyed; for her foes were distracted by the attacks of the Moguls, another Eastern tribe, which, for a time, disputed the rights of the Turks to their new possessions. But they were at length dispersed. Then Mahomet "the Conqueror" gave all his attention to the last surviving city of the Eastern Empire (1453). A great siege began. The newly invented cannon roared before her walls, which, after a brave resistance fell. The last Emperor, Constantine, died with his face to the foe, and the Empire of the East was at an end. The great church of the city, S. Sophia, became a Mahometan mosque, the Crescent blazed where the Cross had hung, and Constantinople became the capital of the new Ottoman Empire.

**Flight of the Greeks.**—This great blow fell upon Eastern Europe while the West looked on in paralysed silence. Only when the shores of Italy were crowded with fugitives did the rulers of that country rouse themselves. But though a new crusade was preached and discussed, the kingdoms of Italy and France were too much engaged with their own private struggles to carry it out. Gradually the Greeks settled down in Italy and neighbouring countries, and Constantinople was forgotten.

**The Renaissance.**—The fall of the Eastern Empire marks the beginning of a period which was to influence men's minds and hearts more than the most important warfare that had ever been carried on. In the Dark Ages of Europe, the ages occupied in conquest and settlement and internal strife, men seemed to have completely forgotten the learning and civilisation and art and poetry of Greece and Rome.

But now Europe was settling down. The Crusades had ceased to keep her in a stir of perpetual action; the boundaries of the separate kingdoms were in most part fairly well defined. Men had leisure to breathe, to look around them and to seek for something higher than the constant atmosphere of warfare. So the beginning of the sixteenth century saw the birth of the "New

## REVIVAL OF LEARNING 1450-1550 A.D. 185

Learning" or the "Renaissance" as it was called; when from all parts of Western Europe men sent their boys to Italy to sit at the feet of the Greek scholars now settled in that land, and when, in the new stir of intellectual activity, men who in former years had only time to fight, began now to *think*. Curiosity was aroused in the facts of the world around them. Printing was invented in 1440, and by this means books became less rare. Columbus roused men up to speculation and imagination by his pictures of a New World beyond the Sea.

**Copernicus.**—But perhaps the greatest revelation made at this time was the discovery by Copernicus of the correct motion of the earth.

Before his days the teaching of Ptolemy, an old astronomer of Alexandria, had been to the effect that the earth was fixed and motionless, and that the sun moved round it every twenty-four hours.

But about the beginning of the sixteenth century, Copernicus, who had been made Professor of Mathematics at Rome, but had thrown up the post to live in retirement at Cracow and to give up his time to the study of the heavens, began to see that this theory did not account for much that could be seen in the sky.

Years and years of patient observation and experiment were passed before Copernicus decided upon the theory which had been hinted at by the Greek philosopher Pythagoras five centuries before Christ, that the earth, with the other planets, moved round the sun. Perhaps the discovery does not seem very wonderful to one who has always been accustomed to its truth. But it acted like a thunderbolt upon Europe, not only because of its startling novelty, but because it led men at once to consider whether the other theories of life and science which they had unquestioningly held might not also be found to be based upon the same kind of error. And thus for the first time interest and curiosity was awakened, and the intellectual life of Europe proceeded by leaps and bounds. But at first the old astronomer had many a weary year of misunderstanding and ignorant disfavour to live through. Men looked upon the holder of a theory which proved their ancestors to have been altogether wrong, with superstitious horror and the very printing-press where the book which expounded the theory was being printed, had to be guarded by men with pistols in their hands. Each day the anxious writer waited, worn out

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with worry and misunderstanding, to hear of its completion. Just as death was very near, his friend entered with hurried step and laid the book in its author's arms. "Lord, let thy servant depart in peace!" breathed the dying man as his brightening eyes saw the fulfilment of his last hopes.

Thus the Renaissance Movement was firmly set on foot in Europe. "Greek has crossed the Alps" cried one of the exiled scholars when he read a German translation of a Greek historian. The young scholar Erasmus travelled to England carrying thither his vast store of classical learning. All the world of Europe was awake, and eager for fresh discoveries, fresh literature, for changes of any kind, such as were soon to come about.

### SUMMARY.—CHAPTER XXVIII.

- I. *The Fall of Constantinople, 1453.*  
Review of history of the city. The split between East and West.  
Attacks of the Saracens.  
Taken by the Crusaders, 1203.  
Recaptured by the Greeks, 1261.  
Invasion by the Ottoman Turks.  
Fall of the city, 1453.
- II. *The Renaissance.*  
Flight of the Greek scholars, who settle in Italy.  
Meaning of Renaissance, "the new birth of knowledge."  
Intellectual activity aroused.
- III. *The discovery of Copernicus.*  
Effect on Europe of the discovery of the motion of the earth. Persecution of Copernicus.  
Spread of learning.

### QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER XXVIII.

- A 1. Make a list of the events which led to the fall of Constantinople and give the date of that event.
  2. What were the causes of the Renaissance?
  - B 1. Describe the influences which caused the Renaissance in Europe.
  2. Give a brief history of the city of Constantinople.
- Read.—"The Cloister and the Hearth" (Reade).  
"Monk and Knight; A Tale of the Renaissance" (F. W. Gunsawlus).

## CHAPTER XXIX

### RENAISSANCE IN ITALY. SAVONAROLA

1450-1500

As we have seen, the Greek scholars who were the pioneers of the Renaissance movement settled first of all in Italy, so that that country became the headquarters of the New Learning. The Italians, like their Greek and Roman forefathers, were always keen to embrace something new and fresh, and among them the people of Florence, who had been coming much to the fore of late, were the most eager to follow in the new paths thus pointed out.

**Florence.**—Florence had been for some years a flourishing Republic, but in the middle of the fifteenth century had fallen under the dominion of one Cosmo de Medici, a wealthy merchant, under whom the city rose to such a pitch of magnificence and brilliancy that none in Italy could compete with it in trade, or learning, or cultivation. "The Father of his country," he was called by the citizens, but his son Pietro was less popular. He had lent money to the Florentines, and when he required its repayment, the debtors set on foot a conspiracy against him which on being discovered, he punished with exile. Some of the most important citizens were concerned in this affair, and when Pietro lay upon his death-bed he urged his two young sons, Giuliano and Lorenzo, to recall the exiles and to forgive them. But the two young men would not regard his wishes, and this roused up powerful enemies against them. The extermination of the Medici was planned by the indignant friends of the exiled citizens. Giuliano was put to death, and Lorenzo only just escaped.

**Lorenzo the Magnificent.**—Lorenzo was not a man to put up with any position except the highest. Step by step he mounted up until he was acknowledged Supreme Lord of Florence. By this time the number of his enemies had increased, but they met with small mercy at his hands, many being imprisoned and exiled.

Then Lorenzo turned his attention to art and letters, and by

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attracting many Greeks of varied accomplishments to his side by bribes of wealth and position, he quickly made the city famous for its pictures, literature and the wealth and luxury of its inhabitants. For the Florentines quickly became more Greek than the Greek. All the beauty and careless easy living of the heathen world existed there, together with a laxity of morals and self-indulgence which never belonged to the best days of the Grecian Empire. The churches were filled, it is true, but only with fashionable people who listened to a literary sermon full of allusions to Greek literature, and then came comfortably away, caring nothing for the hideous poverty and degradation, hidden away in the depths of the beautiful city, which is always bound to exist when men and women lead selfish and luxurious lives. Each year saw the silken tyranny of Lorenzo grow stronger; nor were the minds of the citizens, lowered by vice and indulgence, able any longer to perceive the debasing character of such a government.

But there were men and women too in Florence who sighed over her decadence, and looked in vain for one to help her. And at length the time came.

**Savonarola.**—One Lent, the Lent of 1491, a new preacher appeared in the pulpit of the Duomo, the great convent church of Venice. Tall and gaunt, with a strong rugged face and stirring voice, the Dominican monk of San Marco, Savonarola, stood forth in isolated grandeur, and denounced the vices and follies of the city. The Florentines listened at first with surprise, afterwards with growing fear and awe. Week after week his voice rang forth to the listening crowds; prophecies, denunciations, warnings issued from his inspired lips. "O Italy, O Rome, saith the Lord, I am about to deliver you in the hands of a nation which shall blot you out from among the peoples. The Barbarians are coming hungry as lions. And the deaths will be so many that the grave-diggers will run about the streets crying, 'Who hath any dead?' and then one will bring his father and another his son. . . . O Florence, I repeat to thee, Repent! Repent, O Venice! Repent, O Milan! Repent, O Rome!"

Before long the Florentines were firmly convinced that the stern-faced monk who disappeared after each sermon behind the doors of San Marco, the convent already famous for the pictures of Fra Angelico, was a prophet sent from God. Thousands put

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themselves in his hands and implored his guidance. Bands of men and women called *Piagnoni*, (the "Weepers"), were formed, who devoted themselves to good works among the sick and poor, and troops of white-froaked children began to parade the streets, calling upon the richly dressed and bejewelled dames of the city to contribute their gauds to the great Bonfire of Vanities which smoked all day in the central square of Florence.

**Lorenzo's death.**—While all this reforming energy was at work in the pagan city, Lorenzo the Magnificent lay upon his death-bed. Up to the last he had been flattered and soothed by every device of luxury and adulation, but no such treatment could soothe the deep gloom that lay upon his soul. The deeds of past days rose up before him and he longed for pardon and peace ere he passed from hence. The flattering words of the courtier priests around his bed were loathsome to him, and his mind turned to the strong rapt face of the monk who was stirring all Florence under the spell of an influence greater than his had ever been. At length the message was sent, but Savonarola, mindful of his previous antagonism, hesitated for a while. A second and more urgent message reached him, with a promise to do aught that his reverence bade, and the monk hastened to the bedside of the dying man. Three things were oppressing the mind of the penitent with especial heaviness. These were the remembrance of a sacked city, the robbery of helpless orphans, and a massacre of innocent families in the past. The monk heard in silence; then as he saw his grief, reminded him of the mercy of God and told him that he might hope for forgiveness if he would do three things. The first was to have a living faith in God's pardon. This, Lorenzo said, he held. The next was that he should give back all that had been wrongfully acquired. This was agreed to after a severe struggle. Lastly, said the Padre, republican government and freedom must be restored to Florence. But on these words Lorenzo turned his face to the wall, in silent bitterness of soul. He would not destroy what had been his chief delight, the tyranny of one family in Florence, and the monk, drawing his cowl over his head—"unblessing but not unpitiful"—left him with the word of absolution unspoken. So Lorenzo died, and was succeeded by the weak and feeble Pietro, his son.

**The arrival of the French.**—About a year after this event, King Charles VIII. of France laid claim to the kingdom of Naples and



in his martial progress thither to take the city, approached the walls of Florence. The Florentines were more than ever under the influence of Savonarola at this time, and listened to him in awestruck silence as the great preacher warned them that the French were sent upon them as a scourge from Heaven to call them to repentance.

The people "hurried through the streets after his discourse more dead than alive," in gloomy silence, filled with grave forebodings. But Savonarola they could trust; it was the weak and vicious Pietro who betrayed them. In a panic of terror this miserable leader of the city went out to meet the French king, gave up several fortresses to him, and invited him to enter Florence. On hearing this the wrath of the people knew no bounds. Only the voice of Savonarola kept their actions controlled. Pietro was forced to leave the city with all his family and the power of the Medici came to an end. Meantime Savonarola had gone as the ambassador of Florence to parley with the king. It was too late to keep him from entering the walls, but the monk did not hesitate to warn him against violence or oppression of the inhabitants. Charles heard him with a scornful smile, and entering the city, began to make such insolent demands that the negotiations were broken off by the indignant citizens, who cried, "Sound your trumpets then and we will ring our bells." Falling upon the army of the king they drove them from the streets, and Charles, in alarm, withdrew from the city and proceeded to harry and destroy the country round on his progress to Naples.

Once more the fearless monk and the insolent haughty prince met face to face, when Charles, obliged by a League of Italian cities to retire again beyond the Alps, was encountered near Florence by Savonarola who denounced him in no measured terms for the wanton cruelty wherewith he had treated Italy.

**Fall of Savonarola.**—But no long time had elapsed before the fickle Florentines were weary of the stern and ascetic rule of the enthusiastic monk. Reform was still his cry, and it only needed the whisperings of a hostile party and the jealousy of a weak and worldly Pope to raise so great a storm of opposition against the doctrines of Savonarola, that he was excommunicated. Still a large party in Florence were his devoted adherents, and it was at length proposed by his enemies that the truth of his doctrine should be tried by the ordeal by fire. Savonarola's great mind

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rejected at once this relic of a superstitious and barbarous custom, but the council of the city ordered that one of the monks of his order should represent his side and one of the Franciscan clergy his opponents.

The Dominican monk prepared to enter the fire bearing the Consecrated Host in his hand. His opponents refused to allow this. The dispute ran high. A torrent of rain suddenly fell and extinguished the fire, and from that time the feelings of the superstitious crowd turned against Savonarola. He was taken, imprisoned and tortured so cruelly that in delirious agony he is supposed to have confessed that his prophecies were not based upon heavenly revelation but upon his own opinion.

So he was condemned to die. On May 23, 1498, the great Reformer of Florence, the one man who had turned the minds of the citizens from a state of pagan indulgence back to the paths of duty and uprightness, was burnt within her walls.

It was a striking scene.

"From the Church militant and triumphant I separate thee," cried the bishop sent by the Pope to unfrock the excommunicated man, in confusion and haste.

"From the Church militant, yes," answered the calm sweet voice of the martyred monk, "but from the Church triumphant, no : that is not yours to do."

Too late Florence learnt the wisdom of his teaching. Falling from one tyranny to another, she soon lost her pre-eminence in Italy.

Only in her art treasures and her buildings does she still recall the greatness of past days when the most unselfish and disinterested reformer who ever lived, strove to lift her from the subjection of a vicious tyranny to the freedom of self-government.

### SUMMARY.—CHAPTER XXIX.

- I. *The New Learning flourishes in Italy.*  
Florence becomes its headquarters.  
Rule of the Medici.
- II. *Lorenzo the Magnificent.*  
His enemies. A patron of art and literature.  
Influence of Greek learning. Luxury and poverty in Florence.
- III. *Savonarola.*  
His sermons in the Duomo. Effect upon the citizens.  
The Piagnoni and the Bonfire of Vanities.  
Death of Lorenzo.

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### IV. *The French Invasion.*

Pietro's treachery. Savonarola as ambassador.  
The French forced to retreat.

### V. *Fall of Savonarola.*

The trial by fire. Excommunicated. Death in 1498.

### QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER XXIX.

- A* 1. Name three principal features of Florentine life in the time of Lorenzo.  
2. Give the chief points in the story of Savonarola.
- B* 1. Describe the state of Florentine society under Lorenzo.  
2. Discuss Savonarola (*a*) as a reformer, (*b*) as a politician, and explain as far as you can, his loss of influence over Florence.
- Read.*—"Romola" (George Eliot).  
"The Makers of Florence" (Mrs Oliphant).

# EPOCH V

## THE WARS OF THE REFORMATION

### CHAPTER XXX

#### THE REFORMATION IN EUROPE

1500-1550

**T**HE Renaissance Movement was, as we have seen, the beginning of a new era in Europe.

The troubled days of the Middle Ages were now passing away, and Europe had emerged into the strength and freshness of youth after her stormy childhood. A spirit of enterprise was abroad; men wished to think out and test for themselves the doctrines accepted by their forefathers. The kindling of intellectual life deepened the thoughts and minds of many, while the writings or the actions of such men as Dante, Rienzi, Savonarola and Columbus pointed the way to a liberty of action and breadth of view which was altogether new to Europe. These pioneers of Reformation all perished through neglect or wilful ill-treatment, but the seed they had sown went on increasing and flourishing, till the time was fully ripe for a movement which shook Europe to her foundations.

**Two obstacles to reform.**—In the fifteenth century two great obstacles still stood in the way of development and civilisation.

**Feudalism.**—The one was the despotism of feudal princes and nobles, of which we have seen the effects in France and Italy. Freedom was crushed, and the poor of the land were kept in a state of miserable suppression. But towards the end of the century such men as Louis XI. of France and Henry VII. of

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England, who substituted the power of a king for the tyranny of nobles, and Savonarola, who stirred up the Florentines to such a high ideal of personal liberty, had struck a heavy blow at feudalism, which shortly after the commencement of the sixteenth century, had almost ceased to exist.

**Papal Despotism.**—The second obstacle to progress was the growth of the despotic power of the popes. These popes had been for centuries past both lords of the Church and absolute kings over part of Italy.

At first this had been in many ways an advantage, as they kept in check the violence of the turbulent monarchs, who in those days were striving to rule over the peninsula. Then you will remember that for a time the popes lived in France, and at the same time a rival papacy was set up in Rome, and no one knew for certain who was the real pope at all. Even when they were once more established in Italy, their rule became more and more unsatisfactory. Some of them were wise and good, but some were evil-minded men who brought the Church into bad repute. Moreover as the years passed on, the teaching of the Church which at first had done so much to ennoble and purify men's lives, had become to some extent spoilt and tarnished by superstitious and false ideas quite opposed to the teaching of Christ. Thus men were taught that they might buy with money pardons for their sins called "Indulgences," and because the clergy knew that such things as these were contrary to the teaching of the Bible, they looked with great disfavour at any attempt to translate the same, so as to put it in the hands of the people. Still we must not forget that what has done good work in times past does not deserve destruction and insult because in course of years it has fallen away from its first paths, and has accumulated the dust and cobwebs of time. Reform, not destruction, was what was needed, and this fact was sometimes forgotten by those enthusiastic reformers who in their zeal would rather sweep away than cleanse.

**State of Europe.**—We will now take a very brief glimpse of the state of the European kingdoms at the time when the Reformation Movement first began.

**France.**—France at this period was in a position of great power and importance. Her capital city was noted for the splendour of

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the Court and for the assembly of learned and wealthy men who gathered there. Her king was almost absolute, and she had a fine army under her control.

**Spain.**—Spain, under the rule of Ferdinand and Isabella, was rapidly approaching the period of her greatest strength. Granada had been conquered, and America discovered, and a few years more would see the dawn of her "Golden Age."

**England.**—England, under the Tudors, had crushed her feudal nobility and was rapidly increasing in trade, manufactures, and civilisation, though not on the level of the Western countries of Europe.

**Italy.**—Italy was distracted as usual by the quarrels between her various states. Milan, Florence, Venice, Naples were all independent of each other, though Naples, as we have seen, had been conquered by the French.

**Northern Kingdoms.**—The Northern kingdoms of Russia, Denmark, Norway and Sweden were still centuries behind the rest of Europe in civilisation, and so were little affected by the movements of the rest of the continent.

**Germany.**—Amongst all these countries, the Empire of Germany from its size and antiquity held an important position. The Emperor Charles V., who succeeded Maximilian in 1509, was the most powerful monarch in Europe, for he inherited Spain, the Netherlands and Austria, and was chosen by the electors to be Emperor of Germany. Some of the states of the Empire, such as Saxony, and the Palatinate, were independent of his authority, but over the rest of the provinces he held an absolute sway.

**Luther. Birth in 1483.**—It was in Germany that the Reformation first began, and its moving power was Martin Luther. Born in a miner's home in the year 1483, in the little town of Eisleben, Martin seems to have been meant from a very early age to be a scholar. But when he was about fourteen his parents could not afford to pay for his education any longer, and sent him, with another lad, to Magdeburg, where the monks kept a school for poor boys. Tramping thither, Martin found that he could get the teaching he required, but had no money wherewith to buy food or shelter. But the strong will of the future reformer came to his aid. He spent his evenings in singing through the streets

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for coppers, and so earned enough to keep himself alive. At last a good woman of the town to which he proceeded in the following year determined to give the young scholar a chance. She took him into her household, where he lived for some years, working very diligently at his books. In 1505 we find him taking his doctor's degree at the university of Erfurt. He was only twenty-two, and possibly the hard work and poor fare of past years was affecting his health. The sudden death of his friend, struck down by lightning as he stood at his side, threw him into a state of deep religious melancholy from which his sombre mind never quite emerged. There was only one way of gaining peace, he thought, and soon after taking his degree he entered a monastery.

After two years spent in hard manual work and harder study, Luther was sent as professor of theology to Wittenberg, where his eloquence and deep learning soon gave him a great deal of influence over both the students and the other inhabitants.

**Indulgences, 1517.**—Some ten years later, a band of monks sent from Rome began to traverse Europe for the sake of raising a large sum of money wherewith to complete the building of S. Peter's Church in Rome. This was the great aim of Leo X., a pope who took much interest in architecture and art of all kinds, and who did not hesitate to obtain the required money by the sale of "indulgences" to the ignorant and superstitious population of Europe. Meantime Luther, who had visited Rome and had returned full of horror at the frivolous and ungodly state of the Holy City, had, by his sermons and lectures, prepared men's minds for an attack upon the whole papal system. The appearance of the monk Tetzel, a clever and unscrupulous purveyor of indulgences, was as the spark to the gunpowder train. Luther boldly attacked him from the pulpit of the Cathedral, and proceeded to nail up on the outer door the famous ninety-five sentences giving unanswerable reasons why such a traffic in pardons was both profane and unscriptural. The fame of these sentences was soon noised abroad throughout Germany. Most men were interested, a few were horrified, but the Elector of Saxony, Frederic the Wise, openly came forward as the champion of the bold monk who thus defied the Pope. Another, Philip Melancthon, the gentle boy professor, whose appearance was so youthful that the students refused to hear him, until, struck with the power and intellect of

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his Latin oration, they recognised him as the equal if not the superior of Luther himself, also ranged himself boldly on the side of reform. Then the Pope took the matter up. At first by persuasion, flattery and argument he strove to convince the stubborn monk; but even an interview with the most wily-tongued Cardinal of the day left him unmoved, and he was ordered from his presence in wrath.

There was one means of dealing with such a man, which had never been known to fail.

**The Papal Bull.**—In 1520 a “bull” or writ of excommunication was issued by the Pope against Luther. This meant that he became an outcast from the Church, no priest might absolve or give him the Holy Communion, no man might offer him shelter, or food, or drink. But Luther had gone too far for this to have any terrors for him. Assembling together the professors and students of the University, he solemnly denounced the Pope, and publicly burnt the papal bull on a huge bonfire before the doors of the cathedral.

This was open rebellion, and the power of the Emperor over his recalcitrant subject was invoked.

**Diet of Worms, 1521.**—In 1521 a great Assembly of the most powerful dignitaries of Church and State was held at Worms, presided over by the Emperor Charles V.

The friends of Luther were anxious for his safety, and reminding him of Huss, the Bohemian Reformer, who had been burnt at the stake for his opinions, implored him to flee while there was yet time. But the bold ex-monk was thirsting for the conflict. “Were there as many devils in Worms,” he cried, “as there are tiles on the roofs of the houses, I would still go on!”

So he appeared, a solitary figure, the embodiment of rebellion and reform before one of the most brilliant assemblies in the world. Without hesitation or embarrassment he declared his opinions and refused to recant, ending with the words, “Here I am. I can do no otherwise. God help me! Amen.”

He was allowed to withdraw, but it was not likely that a man of his influence would be left in peace. The idol of the people, one of themselves in every sense, his very popularity made him a great danger to the Roman Church. For a time he lived in hiding in the old castle of Wartburg, where he translated part of the Bible. Meantime his followers had run to extremes in Wittenberg.



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One of them in blind zeal was preaching the abolition of the Church altogether, as well as of every kind of public amusement and class distinction. Amid the confusion and uproar caused by this teaching, there suddenly appeared once more the commanding figure of Luther, risking all danger in order to bring moderation to bear upon these advanced doctrines. But things had gone too far. Religion and politics became hopelessly mixed, and a great rising of the peasants took place in the Black Forest, which was not ended until fifty thousand men had been slain. Scarcely was this ended when Luther began to attack the whole monastic system. By this time he, the ex-monk, had married a nun, Catherine Bora, and thus was forced to repudiate all monastic claims, since it is the law of the Church that neither monks nor nuns shall marry.

The later years of Luther's life were full of disputes and troubles. Many of his difficulties arose from the mistaken zeal of such of his followers as Zwingle in Switzerland, who went much further than Luther had ever done, and invented many new doctrines which were quite as unscriptural as those which Luther had attacked in the Church of Rome. For though it is easy enough to overturn, it is a difficult matter to seek out the truth and set it up instead.

**Diet of Augsburg, 1530.**—Meantime so many of the inhabitants of Germany had ranked themselves with the reforming party, that the Emperor, finding it necessary to obtain the support of the united empire in his numerous wars, made important concessions to the Protestants, as the more extreme party now began to call themselves, at the Diet of Augsburg, when the confession of the faith of this new sect was read. Before long they had separated from the Catholic Church altogether, and had established the Lutheran religion in a great part of the Empire.

**Death of Luther, 1545.**—Martin Luther died in 1545, worn out with worry, anxiety, and quarrels with all his former friends.

He had done a great work in calling men's attention to the evils existing within the Church, and had hurried on a movement of reform, which it is quite certain was bound to come within the next few years.

The popes still ruled in Rome, but their power was very much lessened, and as the new doctrines spread to other kingdoms, their sovereigns, each in turn, became, in more or less degree,

independent of their authority. But, except in England, it took many long years of fighting and despair before the reformed Faith was allowed to exist in the different countries. To throw off a galling chain of authority was one thing: to allow one's subjects to be divided upon a matter which involved much beside religion, was quite another.

## SUMMARY.—CHAPTER XXX.

- I. *Effect of Renaissance.*  
Prepares the way for Reform.  
Two obstacles—Feudalism and Papal despotism.  
Indulgences. Errors in the Church.
- II. *State of Europe in 1517.*  
France, Spain, England, Italy Northern Kingdom, Germany.
- III. *Reformation in Germany.*  
Birth of Luther, 1483. Education. Becomes a monk.  
Professor at Wittenberg University.  
Sale of Indulgences. The ninety-five sentences.  
Philip Melancthon. The papal bull burnt.
- IV. *Diet of Worms, 1521.*  
Life in hiding. Translation of Bible. Return to Wittenberg.  
The Peasants' War. Marriage with a nun. Attack upon the monasteries. Quarrel with Zwingli.
- V. *Diet of Augsburg, 1530.*  
Concessions to Protestants in Germany.  
Death of Luther, 1545.

## QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER XXX.

- A 1. What were (a) the general, (b) the special causes of the Reformation?
  2. Write an account of the Diet of Worms and the Diet of Augsburg.
  - B 1. Trace the various influences which brought about the Reformation movement.
  2. Give an account of the Kingdoms of Europe in 1517.
- Read.*—Chronicles of the Schonberg-Cotta family.

## CHAPTER XXXI

## THE TRIUMPH AND FALL OF SPAIN

1519-1600 A.D.

**Charles V.**—While Germany was thus sowing the seed of the Reformation in Europe, an Emperor was ruling over Germany, Spain and the Netherlands, who bade fair before his death to

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become a second Charlemagne. When Maximilian, the late Emperor, died, the kings of France, Spain and England all laid claim to the imperial crown. But it was absolutely necessary that the new Emperor should be strong enough to keep back the Turks, who then, as in former days, were threatening the Eastern frontier of the Empire, and all seem to have agreed that the only man who could be trusted to repel them was the ambitious and powerful young king, Charles, who already held Spain and the Low Countries.

But the accession of Charles V. to the Empire made him for life the rival of Francis I., King of France, and for many years the history of Europe is the story of the struggles between these two monarchs. Both were filled with a passion for military glory, and for a time it seemed as though the bad old days of warfare, though under very different conditions, were come again.

**Rivalry of France and Spain.**—The quarrel first broke out over Naples, which was claimed by Francis, and Milan, claimed by Charles, and for the next ten years unhappy Italy became the ground on which their contest was fought out. Each hoped to obtain the help of Henry VIII. of England, who adopted the proud device, "Whom I defend is master." The revolt of the Duke of Bourbon, the most powerful of French nobles, to the side of the Emperor, gave the advantage to Charles, and in the battle which followed, died the noted Chevalier Bayard, the peerless knight "without fear and without reproach." Finding him dying at the foot of a tree, Bourbon expressed his sorrow and his sympathy "seeing that he had been such a virtuous knight." But Bayard only answered, "Sir, you need have no pity for me, for I die an honest man, but I have pity on you, seeing you serve against your prince, your country, and your oath."

**Battle of Pavia, 1525.**—Seeing his general defeated, Francis, acting against the advice of his ministers, invaded Italy himself, and marched against Pavia, which was held by the Spaniards. Scarcely had he begun the attack when a German army came up behind his men, and thus shut in between two armies, he was caught as if in a trap. Still his men fought hard—so hard that it was said, "You could see nothing but heads and arms flying in the air." But in the end, Francis in his rashness was cut off from his troops and taken prisoner. Carried to the

# DOMINIONS OF CHARLES V. 1519.

Map VII.



Methuen & Co.

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prison of Madrid, he wrote to his mother, begging her to govern France in his stead and telling her that "all is lost save honour." A year later he was freed, leaving his two young sons as hostages in the Emperor's hands.

**State of Italy.**—Meanwhile the land of Italy was left a prey to the robber bands of which the German army largely consisted. Every rascal in the land helped to swell their number, and at length, headed by the traitor Bourbon, they marched on Rome itself. The Pope, Clement VII., had sent away the Imperial Guard, believing it impossible that even such an army of barbarians would attack an unarmed city. But Bourbon himself, wearing a white shirt over his armour in order to make himself conspicuous to his troops, was the first to lead the assault, and though he fell with a bullet in his back at the first onslaught, his men avenged him by a general massacre of the inhabitants, looting the churches, and capturing the Pope himself. Never had there been such a scene in Rome since the days of Odoacer and Alaric. This gave Francis the chance of renewing hostilities, but only for a time. The Turks, under the terrible Soliman, were advancing upon Vienna, and in face of their threatened approach a treaty was signed at Cambrai, by which all the Italian allies of Francis were abandoned by him to the vengeance of the Emperor.

**Delivery of Christian Slaves.**—During these troubled years, a race of Barbary pirates had been engaged in the capture of many thousand unfortunate Italian and Spanish sailors, who were carried off to a horrible condition of slavery in and about Tunis and Algiers. It was the action of Charles V. in attacking the pirates in their own lair which brought the eyes of Europe upon the deliverer of twenty thousand Christian slaves, and caused his name to be blessed throughout the continent.

**The Aims of Charles.**—The threefold aim of Charles had now been almost fulfilled. Italy had been enslaved, the Turks repulsed from the frontiers of the Empire; it remained only to complete the humiliation of France. So sure was he of victory that he declared that "if he had no more resources than his rival, he should go at once, with his arms tied, and a rope round his neck, to throw himself at his enemy's feet and ask for mercy." He even divided the estates of France beforehand among his officers.

But Francis was grown wiser in his maturer years. The part of France by which the invaders came was laid waste by his orders; the Marshal of France had but to wait until, worn out by want of food and water, the army of the Emperor had melted away. A truce was made, and France remained in the hands of her hereditary sovereigns.

**Attack on Protestantism.**—A new ambition now seized upon the mind of Charles V. France was lost, but there yet remained the duty of crushing out the new religion which was growing apace in Germany and the Low Countries. The Inquisition, a grim tribunal before which heretics, as they were called, were tried and punished with the utmost severity of torture and death, was established in the Netherlands. A rebellion of the Lutherans was crushed down in Germany with an iron hand, and years of warfare followed. It was only the renewed attack of the Turks upon the Empire that forced him reluctantly to strengthen his hands in Germany by allowing liberty of conscience to the Protestants by the Treaty of Ausburg (1555).

**The Pilgrim of S. Just.**—Scarcely a year later, when apparently in the very midst of his ambitious schemes, the Emperor suddenly threw up the reins of government, and passed on his vast territory to his brother and son. "Fortune loves not the old," was his explanation as Europe gazed in astonishment at the spectacle of so mighty a prince putting off the Imperial purple for the cloak of a monk. Retiring to the monastery of S. Just, he spent the last two years of his life in meditation on religion and upon his own last end. It is said that to impress this latter event upon his mind, he ordered his funeral to be celebrated in full state while he himself watched it from an unseen position.

**Philip II., 1556.**—The king who succeeded to the throne of Spain was the gloomy narrow-minded Philip II., a prince whose one aim was to crush under his iron heel all those who would not hold in their fulness the doctrines of the Roman Catholic Church.

**Conquest of Mexico.**—In his time Spain touched the highest point of her greatness, though owing little to her ruler, pre-occupied as he was with religious fanaticism. In 1521 the Spaniard, Cortez, had conquered Mexico, and thirty years later the produce of the gold mines of that country was still being poured into the Spanish treasury. Her ships were the masters of the

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sea. Her navy was greater in size and strength than any other in Europe. The Jesuits, a sect of monks founded by the ex-soldier, Ignatius Loyola, had introduced an unrivalled system of education into her land ; her king, with the Inquisition at his back stood, before Christendom as the champion of the Roman Catholic Church.

The marriage of Philip II. with Mary of England gave him the opportunity of pressing onward the persecution of the reformed party in England ; the protection afforded Protestant refugees by Elizabeth led to the attempt of invasion by means of the Spanish Armada. Of his treatment of the Low Countries we shall hear in another lesson.

**The Spanish Armada, 1588.**—In 1588 a fleet such as had never been seen upon the seas before set out to conquer England and avenge the death of Mary Stuart, who had been beheaded by Elizabeth. In the same year a few battered wrecks returned to hide themselves in the Spanish harbours. At one blow Spain had lost the supremacy of the seas, and England took the place she had once filled. On the coasts of America, that stronghold of Spanish treasure, Drake was seizing the ships with their cargo of gold, and planning a navy which should destroy their trade. The greatness of Spain was no more.

### SUMMARY.—CHAPTER XXXI.

- I. *The Emperor Charles V.*  
Ruler over Spain, Germany and the Netherlands.  
Rival of Francis I. of France.
- II. *Rivalry of France and Spain.*  
Revolt of Bourbon. Chevalier Bayard.  
Battle of Pavia, 1525. Francis taken prisoner.
- III. *State of Italy.*  
Sack of Rome by Germans. Advance of the Turks.  
Treaty of Cambrai, 1529.
- IV. *Sack of Tunis.*  
Delivery of Christian slaves.  
The three aims of Charles V. Conquest of Italy, Turks ; attempt on France fails.  
Attack on Protestantism. The Inquisition. Treaty of Augsburg, 1555.  
The Pilgrim of St. Just.
- V. *Philip II., 1556.*  
Conquest of Mexico leads to greatness of Spain. Her navy. Her wealth. Attacks all non-Catholics. Spanish Armada, 1588.  
Fall of the supremacy of Spain.

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## QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER XXXI.

- A* 1. What were the aims of Charles V., and how far did he carry them out?  
2. What do you know of the Treaty of Cambrai, the Pilgrim of S. Just, Sack of Rome, Sack of Tunis, Bayard, Battle of Pavia, Spanish Armada, Cortez?
- B* 1. Trace the chief events in the war between Spain and France.  
2. What events led to the greatness of Spain during this period, and what led to its fall?
- Read.*—"Conquest of Mexico" (Prescott).  
"Charles V." (Robertson).  
"Westward Ho!" (Kingsley).  
Drake's "Voyage round the World."

## CHAPTER XXXII

### THE GROWTH OF THE DUTCH REPUBLIC

1550-1600 A.D.

We saw in our last lesson how Philip II. of Spain made it his work in life to destroy with a ruthless hand all those who claimed freedom of conscience in their religion. In this lesson we shall see how his cruelty and narrow-mindedness led to the loss to Spain of the Northern part of the Netherlands, and the rise of the Dutch Republic.

**Condition of the Low Countries.**—The doctrines of Calvin and Luther quickly spread into the country which lies at the mouth of the great German river, the Rhine. In these sea-ridden lands lived a patient, hard-working race of people accustomed from their early years to encounter difficulties and disappointments on every hand, from the continual inroads of the sea, which obliged them to be always constructing the stone dykes with which their country is intersected, in order to keep this enemy out.

Thus, as we should expect, they had little time to think of fighting, but, trained by their experience of danger and difficulty to patient toil, they succeeded not only in making their little land famous for the produce of its soil, but also in monopolising most of the trade of Europe in their flat-bottomed ships. Thus, though comparatively insignificant in number, they were among the wealthiest of those who recognised the King of Spain as their supreme lord. The Low Countries were situated as we see from



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our map at some distance from Spain, and this together with the independent character of their inhabitants had brought about the result that each state possessed its own government, and each city its own charter of freedom. Yet the Spanish king exercised a kind of general jurisdiction over them, and they were ready enough to grant him men or money in time of war. The mistake that Philip made was in thinking that it only required a little extra firmness and strength to establish a rule over the Netherlanders as despotic as that by which he ruled his own people. The news that the greater part of these semi-subjects of his had embraced the reformed religion confirmed him in his desire. He refused to recognise the liberty they claimed, or their commercial importance, which gave them a claim to consideration, or the Northern character, so different from that produced by the sleepy South. He proceeded to establish the Inquisition in the Netherlands, to quarter upon them a Spanish army, and to divide their government between the Duchess of Parma and Cardinal Granvella.

**William the Silent and Count Egmont.**—Two men came forward immediately as the patriots of the persecuted countries.

The one, a grave and reserved young man, the son of one of the favourite generals of Charles V., and himself already a renowned soldier, was William of Orange, generally known as the Silent. Though a Catholic himself, William had seen enough of religious persecution both in France and his own land to make him decide that two things must be obtained unless he would see his native country crushed into an insignificant province of Spain. Religious freedom must be granted them, and as he was far-sighted enough to see that this would never fully come about under a bigot like Philip II., he realised that freedom of government, the freedom of a Republic, must come next. It was to the accomplishment of these two ends that William determined to devote his life.

**St Quentin, 1559.**—Count Egmont, who belonged to one of the noblest of the families of the Low Countries, had earned the regard of the Spanish king by bringing about the great victory of St Quentin, in 1559, by which means peace was made between Philip and Henry II. of France. This man, together with William of Orange, undertook to put strongly before the king the grievances under which the Provinces were labouring, with the

# THE NETHERLANDS

AT THE END OF XVI CENTURY

Statute Miles  
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result that Philip, whose time was not yet come, consented to withdraw the army, but secretly sent orders to the Inquisition to redouble their vigilance and to make heavier the penalties for those who refused to return to the ancient faith. Thousands of the people, industrious weavers and cloth-makers for the most part, fled from the country and took refuge in the England of Elizabeth, where the introduction of their skilled work was greatly appreciated. But many more refused to flee, and determined to go to any length rather than give up their freedom of religion. Their first step was to form a league, called the "Compromise," which presented a petition to the regent demanding the abolition of the Inquisition. But the foolish advisers of the Duchess made her think scorn of any demand of these "beggars," as they were contemptuously called by the Spanish grandees of the court. The petition was refused, and immediately the people rose in revolt. Banding themselves together under the name of "Les Gueux"—the Beggars—they paraded the land with a mendicant's pouch for their badge, and proceeded to wreck churches and destroy altars and images wherever they were found. This alone would have been enough to draw down Philip's wrath upon them; but when he found his own son, Don Carlos, openly stating his intention of putting himself at the head of the rebels, he concealed his feelings and planned a yet more deadly vengeance in his crafty soul. By means of a bribed physician the speedy death of Don Carlos was assured. Then, veiling his intention of putting William of Orange, Egmont and all those who sympathised with the rebels to death by causing the former to be informed that "he was loved and cherished by his majesty, and that the Regent had ever loved him like a brother," he prepared an army which should crush the Netherlands to powder.

William of Orange was not deceived, but Egmont, who had been horrified at the excesses of the people, would not hear of any attempt at throwing off his submission to the king. In vain William urged him to help in arming troops for the protection of their fatherland; he would not fight against Spain, and even tried to prove his loyalty by his zeal in punishing the rioters, when Philip sent word that all magistrates and men holding public office were to swear a new oath to obey him in every respect, in whatever he should command. Egmont was the first to take the oath. But William stood aloof. "I see but too clearly," said he

to his too trustful friend, "that you are to be the bridge which the Spaniards will destroy as soon as they have passed over it to invade our country." That same year this brave soldier, the people's idol, the king's most brilliant officer, was beheaded by the order of his faithless master.

**Alva.**—William of Orange was now the people's only hope, and he was not strong enough to act alone. Retiring to Germany he could but look on while the army of the Duke of Alva, most ruthless and cruel of men, entered the Netherlands, and proceeded to set up the terrible Council of Blood. The aim of this Assembly was threefold; it had to crush out the reformed religion, to destroy the leaders of the opposition party, and to establish the despotic rule of Spain. Thousands of men, women and children perished by means of this hideous Council. Egmont was one of the first to fall, and after him the soil was red with the blood of those who, on the slightest excuse, were condemned to death. So powerful did the dreaded Duke become that the people could only look on in helpless despair to see the army, which William of Orange had at length succeeded in raising in Germany, cut to pieces before their eyes. But four years of this reign of blood produced in the minds of the patient Netherlanders a hatred of Spain which was ready to break forth at any time under a competent leader.

**Taking of Brill, 1572.**—A monstrous tax levied upon them by their tyrant, which would have utterly ruined their commerce, brought things to a head. The people closed their shops and refused to pay it. The usual bloodthirsty punishment was about to be exacted, when suddenly the news arrived that the important coast town of Brill had been seized by the "Beggars of the Sea," a little band of fugitives, who, driven from the ports of England at the instigation of Philip, had turned pirates, and had now taken possession of this place in the name of the Prince of Orange. Scarcely had the news reached Alva, when all the important coast towns of the provinces revolted, and declared themselves on the side of William. It seemed as though the time had come to strike for freedom; but just at that time the horrible massacre of S. Bartholomew, of which you will hear more in the next lesson, took place in Paris. All the hopes of the prince had centred in France of late, and this blow crushed them at once. The Catholic party had triumphed in France, and seemed as though it

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must do the same in the Netherlands. The unfortunate coast towns capitulated, and saw most of their inhabitants massacred. Haarlem, indeed, stood out; broke down her dykes, and paid her tithes in ten Spanish heads. After a hard fought siege Alva promised free pardon to all if they would capitulate. They did so, and this monster of cruelty kept his word by massacring even the sick and wounded in the general carnage.

But the coast towns of the North still held out, and "Father William," as they called him, was soon in their midst, cheering and encouraging them on to undertake a struggle such as has been seldom seen, between the greatest power of Europe and the little sea-provinces of Holland and Zeeland. The story of the relief of Leyden will explain the extremities to which the inhabitants were driven.

**Relief of Leyden, 1574.**—William of Orange was lying sick of a fever in the city of Rotterdam when he heard that the important town of Leyden, fifteen miles from the coast, was being closely besieged by the Spaniards. He had no army to send to their help, and day by day the inhabitants of the city watched and hoped in vain. The only help available was the little fleet of "Beggars," which had already proved its strength against the Spaniards, but which of course was no use at all on land. At last a bold expedient was tried; the great stone dykes were broken down, and the sea flowed in over fields and villages. On sailed the fleet, but just as they were almost in sight of the starving city, the wind changed to the east, the sea sank, and their progress was barred. The Spanish troops jeered at them in derision, "Your prince can as easily pluck the stars from heaven as bring the sea to your walls," they told the heart-broken inhabitants.

But one night a great gale blew from the north-west, the sea rose rapidly, and, rolling up to the city gates, drowned thousands of the Spanish soldiers before a blow was struck. The sea had been brought to Leyden, and the city was saved.

**The Spanish Fury.**—The war in the Netherlands had now been going on for so long that the wealth of Spain was almost exhausted. Alva, glutted with the blood of his eighteen thousand victims, had returned to Spain, and under his successor the Spanish army, sick of fighting without any pay, mutinied, and for several days went mad in their desire for gold, plundering, killing and destroying all that opposed them, regardless of creed or race.

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This opportunity was seized by the sharp-sighted Prince of Orange. He persuaded the different states to unite together to expel the Spanish soldiers from their land. But these states only acted together for a time. Under the rule of the Prince of Parma the southern provinces returned to their allegiance to the king. The Northern Provinces, which had always played the leading part, held together, and in 1579 signed the Union of Utrecht, by which they bound themselves to keep out the Spanish troops and to protect their liberty of conscience. Shortly after, these United Provinces declared their perfect independence of the rule of Spain, and looked about them for a new king. William the Silent advised them to offer the crown to the brother of the French king, but he soon broke faith with them in trying to bring them under the rule of France. Elizabeth of England, who had sent them help in time of need, and had thereby sacrificed the life of her favourite Sidney on the field of Zutphen, was offered the sovereignty, but she refused. Finally, as they could get no one to their mind, the States determined to become a Republic.

**Death of Orange.**—Meanwhile the politic Prince of Parma had done all he could to regain the lost Province for Spain by winning over William of Orange. Finding that no bribes could assail the faith of the originator of the revolt of the Netherlands, Philip declared him a traitor to his lawful king and a public enemy, and offered the sum of twenty-five thousand crowns for his head.

One would have thought that such a patriot was safe within the free provinces, but traitors are found in every land.

As he was ascending the stairs of his home at Delft, a fanatic youth named Belthazar Gerard rushed from the landing on which he had lain hidden, and shot the prince through the heart (1584).

"Oh, my God, have mercy upon this poor people," groaned the dying man with his last breath, caring to the end for those for whom he had given up all that makes life dear.

Thus the foundations of the Dutch Republic were laid, and one of the richest of her provinces was taken from the hands of Spain.

### SUMMARY.—CHAPTER XXXIII.

#### I. *Condition of the Low Countries, 1550.*

Commercial and political situation.

Spread of reformed faith. Philip establishes the Inquisition and a Spanish army and regent

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### II. *William the Silent and Count Egmont.*

Aim of William—religious and political liberty.

Egmont, noted general, faithful to Philip's rule.

Flight of persecuted weavers to England.

The "Beggars." Riots among the people.

### III. *The Revenge of Philip.*

Death of Don Carlos. The Avenging army. Execution of Egmont.

The New Oath. Persecution set on foot by Alva.

The Assembly of Blood. Failure of William to bring aid.

### IV. *The Taking of Brill, 1572.*

Revolt of coast towns. Massacre of S. Bartholomew.

Revenge on Haarlem and other towns. The North holds out.

Relief of Leyden, 1574. "Spanish Fury."

### V. *Union of Utrecht, 1579.*

United Provinces become a Republic.

Assassination of William of Orange, 1584.

## QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER XXXII.

A 1. What were the aims (a) of Philip II., (b) of William of Orange with regard to the Netherlands, and how far did they carry them out?

2. What effect had the Taking of Brill, the Beggars, the Massacre of S. Bartholomew, the Assembly of Blood, the Relief of Leyden, the Spanish Fury on the progress of the Revolt of the Netherlands?

B 1. Trace the effect of the character of Alva, and William the Silent respectively, upon the Revolt of the Netherlands.

2. Sketch the steps by which the foundation of the Republic of Holland was laid.

*Read.*—The "Siege of Haarlem" and the "Relief of Leyden" in Motley's History of the Dutch Republic.

"By England's Aid" (Henty).

## CHAPTER XXXIII

## THE HUGUENOTS IN FRANCE

1530-1572 A.D.

We have seen how the spread of the reformed religion affected Spain and the Netherlands. Its growth in France influenced the history of that country in a still more remarkable way.

The first shadow of the storm which was to break over Paris in future years was seen in the days of Francis I. For nearly four

centuries a quiet industrious tribe of people called the Vaudois had inhabited the valleys on the French side of the Alps, and had there made out a religion for themselves, which differed little from that of the Lutherans, of whom they had never heard, but was heretical, according to the mind of the Roman Catholic Church. Stirred up by the Emperor, with whom he had just made peace, Francis determined to clear the heretics from the land. So there descended upon these harmless folk, working in their little farms and happy and contented in their simple faith, bands of rude soldiers, who proceeded to burn the villages and kill every man, woman and child they found therein. One of their little towns was given up on condition that their lives were spared. The promise was given, but the soldiers decided that they need not keep faith with heretics. The men were massacred, the women shut up in a barn and burnt.

**Henry II., 1547-1559.**—It was not until the reign of Henry II., the son of Francis, that the rapid growth of what was now called the Huguenot religion brought up the question again in France, as to whether it was to be allowed, or to be suppressed at once. At first we find Henry, although a staunch Roman Catholic, actually fighting on the reformers' side in Germany, not because he wanted to uphold the new ideas, but because he found that he could, by an alliance with the Protestant princes, gain from Germany three border towns upon which he had long had his eye. But when his attention was drawn to the large number of his subjects who had embraced the teaching of the Frenchman Calvin, a more extreme Protestant than Luther himself, he tried at once to check them by establishing a kind of small Inquisition, known as the Burning Council, because it usually ordered Huguenots to be burnt. But in France, as in other countries, persecution seemed only to swell the numbers of those attacked by it. These belonged mostly to the middle and lower classes, but some of the most notable men in France had now joined their ranks; and amongst them was Coligny, one of the bravest and best of Henry's officers, a man of whom it was said that if there was a piece of specially hard and uninteresting work to be done, he was the man to do it. His great rival was the Catholic Duke of Guise, head of the family which held such power in France during the next few years. He it was who in these days took advantage of the Spanish invasion, to which Mary of England had sent assistance, to seize



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the carelessly guarded town of Calais, the last of the English possessions in France.

The last days of Henry's life were spent in increasing efforts to stamp out the rapid growth of the Huguenot faith. He failed in his efforts to set up the Inquisition, but he threw many of those who opposed him into the Bastille, the Paris prison, under whose walls he himself was doomed to die. For a tournament was held under the very windows of the prison, in the course of which the king asked the Scotch knight, Montgomery, to tilt with him. The knight's spear slipped, raising the vizor which protected the king's face, and pierced his eye, so that he shortly after died.

His son, Francis II., who now became king, was a boy of fifteen, and the whole governing power fell into the hands of the queen-mother, Catherine de Medici, and those of the Guises, six powerful brothers, who, by virtue of being the uncles of Mary Stuart, the young king's bride, exercised great influence over the weak youth and his court. The Guise family were strongly on the side of the Pope, and the Huguenots could expect nothing but oppression at their hands. But, fortunately for the latter, the Guises were so unpopular and tyrannical, that many of the French nobles sided with the Huguenots rather than with them. They looked for a leader to the King of Navarre and his brother, the Prince of Condé, both of whom held the reformed faith, but the former was weak and irresolute, so the latter was now put forward secretly as their leader. A rising was planned, which was to take the young king out of the hands of the queen-mother and his uncles, and insist upon his being ruled by the advice of Condé, while the Guise family were kept closely in prison. But a traitor in the camp betrayed their design. They rose, but only to find everyone prepared to resist them. Condé escaped by declaring that he had had nothing to do with it, and by offering to fight anyone who disbelieved him; but thousands of Huguenots perished, their sufferings being made a public show for many weeks. So ended the ill-fated Conspiracy of Amboise. By a counterplot, the King of Navarre and his brother Condé would both have been killed by the Guises, had not the death of the king put a stop for a while to their influence at Court.

**Civil War in France.**—It was, however, the cruelty of the Duke of Guise in the early days of the young King Charles IX., brother of Francis, which brought about the first civil war in this religious

## THE HUGUENOTS 1530-1572 A.D. 165

strife. He was travelling from Germany with an army at his back, when the sound of bells ringing in the little town of Vassy made him ask what was going on. They told him that the Huguenots were holding service in a great barn, towards which the Duke, angrily gnawing at his beard, made his way. Seeing it full of people, he ordered the soldiers to fire in at the windows. The terrified people tried to close the door, but the soldiers rushed in, and with cries of "Kill! kill!" drove them out, cutting at them with their swords as they rushed helplessly down the lane of armed men. Those who tried to escape by climbing to the roof were shot down, and thus sixty people were killed and two hundred badly wounded. So foul a deed blackened the name of Guise throughout the length and breadth of France. Everywhere the people rose. Elizabeth of England sent help to the sufferers, Condé placed himself openly at their head, and Orleans was taken at the first hurried onslaught of the prince. Coligny, now Admiral of France, was their second leader, while the King of Navarre, once on their side, now joined the Catholic party and fell in the early days of the war.

The advantage in battle was generally on the side of the king, but the hatred of the Duke of Guise was so intense, that soon after a great victory for the Catholics, when the latter was about to attack Orleans, a Huguenot followed him and his two attendants, and, unnoticed in the evening light, fired three shots at the Duke and then rode away. He was captured and cruelly executed, but his enemy was dead.

**Death of Condé.**—For a time peace was made, but the Spanish Duke of Alva, then on his way to persecute the Netherlanders, stirred up the king to fresh cruelty. The war broke out again and again, and at length the brave Prince of Condé fell. He had had his leg broken in the midst of the Battle of Jarnac, but would not leave the field. Crying out to his followers, "This is the moment we have wished for. Remember how Louis of Condé entered into battle for Christ and his country!" he flung himself into the midst of the enemies' ranks with only three hundred followers behind him. His horse was killed, he fell to the ground alone and helpless, and a French captain, recognising him, shot him through the head.

**Jeanne d'Albret.**—For the moment it seemed as though the Huguenot cause was doomed. But to the anxious and harassed

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camp there now appeared a brave and devoted woman, Jeanne d'Albret, the Queen of Navarre, leading her young son Henry and her nephew another Henry, son of the dead Condé, by the hand. "Here is your leader," she cried, as she told how from his earliest years her boy had been brought up to bear hardships, and to learn the lesson of endurance in preparation for his future work in the Huguenot cause. With a shout of joy the soldiers hailed the lad as their leader, and a solemn oath was taken by him to fight for the Huguenots till the last.

In spite of their ill-success on the battle-field, this part of the Civil War brought about a better state of things for the Protestants. They were allowed to hold services and to be admitted to offices of State, and four towns were given up to them as a pledge that the king would keep faith.

**Influence of Coligny over Charles IX.**—The young king, Charles IX., being now twenty years of age, was weary of his mother's rule, and caring only for deeds of valour on the battle-field, such as she carefully kept out of his power, he sent for Admiral Coligny, who stirred his excitable mind to a great idea of the glory he might win as the champion of the oppressed Netherlanders against the tyranny of Spain.

From this it would be but a short step to enlist the king's sympathy for his own oppressed people; and Catherine and the Guises grew very uneasy at the influence the Admiral was evidently exercising. One day, as Coligny was walking to his house from the Palace, a bullet, fired from a window, pierced his arm. The would-be murderer escaped, but the king, guessing that the Guises had instigated the affair, was furious, and swore to protect his friend from future harm. He took a further step towards uniting the two parties, by inviting to Paris the young Henry of Navarre, in order that he might marry his sister, Margaret of Valois. But Catherine de Medici had determined that further he should not go. She managed without difficulty to convince her weak and excitable son that a plot was on foot among the Huguenots to put him and the chief Catholic lords to death. It was a more difficult matter to convince him that the death of Coligny was necessary to his own safety. For a long time he withstood her persuasions, but at length, worn out by her persistency and that of the Guises, he exclaimed in wild words that if they thought it right, Coligny should die, but if so, every Huguenot in Paris

should die too lest there be one left to reproach him afterwards. Then they left him to carry out their bloodthirsty plan.

**Massacre of S. Bartholomew, 1572.**—On the night of Sunday, the 24th August, S. Bartholomew's Day, a great bell began to toll throughout the city, much of which was already wrapped in sleep. Some who heard it thought it the prelude to the wedding peal to be rung in honour of Henry of Navarre and Margaret of Valois. They were quickly undeceived. From every part of the city men wearing white scarves upon their arms rushed to the houses of the Huguenots, stabbing, shooting, or beating out the brains of all whom they came upon. Young children joined in the mad thirst for blood, and tried to kill the Huguenot babes who fell from their dead mothers' arms.

A message was brought to the bedside of the sleeping Admiral that he was wanted at once. He quickly arose, but the messenger struck him in the back a deadly blow, and threw his body from the window to the courtyard below, where the Duke of Guise was waiting in grim expectation. When morning came, the little remnant of the Huguenots was fleeing from the city, more dead than alive, and the king himself standing at his palace window was crying in frenzy, "Kill! kill!" and firing at the fugitives with his own gun. Two thousand people lay dead in the streets or blocked up the river with their corpses, and orders had been sent to the chief provincial towns to carry out the same horrible plan. Some of the governors refused, saying they were soldiers, not butchers; but many obeyed.

This terrible event seems to have affected the reason of the king both at the time and afterwards. He became morose and sullen. His brother-in-law, Henry of Navarre, one of the few Huguenots whose life had been spared, was summoned to his bedside at night to find him mad with terror, his ears filled with the clash of swords, the shrieks of women, the angry roar of an avenging crowd. He could not meet the eye of another man, but gazed at ceiling or floor instead. He died two years later, cursing his mother with his last breath, and thanking God that he had no son to succeed him.

But in spite of this cruel massacre, the Huguenots increased in strength and in determination to secure their liberty. We shall see in the next lesson how this was brought about.

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## SUMMARY.—CHAPTER XXXIII.

- I. *The Persecution of the Vaudois.*  
Beginning of religious strife in France.  
Henry II. supports the German Protestants.  
The French take Calais.
- II. *The Conspiracy of Amboise.*  
Power of Catherine de Medici and the Guise family.  
Plot of the Huguenots to gain control of the king fails.
- III. *Civil War in France.*  
Begun by the massacre at Vassy.  
Coligny and Prince of Condé head the Huguenots.  
Death of Condé and of Guise. Battle of Jarnac.
- IV. *Joanna d'Albret brings Henry of Navarre to be the Huguenot leader.*  
Influence of Coligny with the king.
- V. *Massacre of S. Bartholomew, 1572.*  
The plot of Catherine. The king's consent.  
Effect upon the king. His death.

## QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER XXXIII.

- A 1. Name three important events in the Huguenot war, and state why you think them important.
  2. Give an account of the causes and effects of the Massacre of S. Bartholomew.
  - B 1. Trace out the main steps in the Huguenot war up to the Massacre of S. Bartholomew.
  2. Compare and contrast the lives and character of Condé and Guise.
- Read.*—"The Six Sisters of the Valley" (Bramley Moore).  
"S. Bartholomew's Eve" (Henty).  
"La Rochelle, or The Refugees" (Mrs Wilson).  
"The House of the Wolf" (Stanley Weyman).  
"The Chaplet of Pearls" (C. Yonge).

## CHAPTER XXXIV

### HENRY OF NAVARRE

1572-1610 A.D.

For a short time after the death of the late king, Henry of Navarre seemed content to live on at the French court with his wife and his brother-in-law, the new king, as though the massacre of S. Bartholomew had never taken place. His was a curious character.

## HENRY OF NAVARRE 1572-1610 A.D. 169

He was not filled with religious zeal, as Coligny and Condé had been. He cared as little for the Huguenot faith as for the Catholic. But he had a strong wish to see this hapless land of France once more united, and the days of bloodshed and religious strife a thing of the distant past. Brought up to a simple country life, the luxurious existence of the French court became at length exceedingly distasteful to him; and at length he rode away secretly by night and put himself at the head of the Huguenot camp.

The new king, Henry III., hated the Protestants as much as even his mother could wish. But this was his only strong point. In everything else he showed himself so weak and peevish that his subjects despised a sovereign who was of so different a nature from the merry, genial Henry of Navarre, or the strong-willed Henry of Guise, and whose chief delight was to walk in procession through the streets of Paris, beating and being beaten by the "flagellant" monks with the scourge.

**The League.**—Henry of Guise, the son of the late Duke, was at this time the idol of the Catholic party. With the help of powerful friends he now formed a society known as the League, which all Roman Catholics were to join, and by means of which he hoped to gain the succession to the throne, in place of Henry of Navarre, the rightful heir. At first Henry III. kept clear of it, but finding that Philip of Spain, in the hope of keeping France at war while he attacked England, was lending it his aid, he promised to join it himself, yet never brought himself quite to the decisive point. So there began a three-cornered kind of war, known as the War of the Three Henrys, in which the real leaders on either side were Guise and Henry of Navarre. But still the fortune of battle never smiled upon the Huguenots, and a great victory won by Guise over the German soldiers sent to aid the Protestants, gave the former his chance. Riding to Paris, he passed through the streets with his face hidden in his cloak. Suddenly his companion pulled off his hat as though in jest. The people recognised him at once and a tremendous demonstration of welcome took place. "Long live Guise" shouted the citizens, and every face beamed at him with joy, save that of the jealous king, who at once sent for troops to guard his palace against one whom he rightly regarded as a usurper.

**The Day of Barricades.**—The people immediately rose up in

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defence of Guise and barricaded all the streets. There was nothing left for the king to do but to leave Paris at once. Not bold enough either to join Henry of Navarre or to try to turn his enemy out, he determined to murder him in secret. He arranged that he should be summoned to the royal castle, as though to parley with him. As he entered the king's private room, he was stabbed on the threshold by murderers, until he died.

**Death of Henry III.**—But well might Catherine warn her son that now he had killed the King of Paris he had better beware lest he found himself King of Nowhere. The people hated him, and although he now made friends with Henry of Navarre, neither party trusted him. Paris held out against him, and as he approached the city with his new ally, a half-mad monk, named Clément, offered him a letter. As he began to read, the monk stabbed him with a long knife, so that he died. Thus Henry of France and his deadly foe, the Duke of Guise, met the same fate.

**Henry of Navarre and Paris.**—Henry of Navarre was now the King of France. But Catholic Paris would have none of him, and held out under a leader of their own choice. Battle after battle was fought, and still Northern France refused to acknowledge a Huguenot sovereign. At length a decisive battle was fought at Ivry in the year 1590. Henry's men were few in number and weary with a long march, but the cheery words of their king did much to rouse their drooping spirits. Just before the contest began the king told them to follow the white crest of feathers in his helmet. And so, since wherever the fight was fiercest, the white crest blazed, his men could not think of retreat or failure and the day was won. A kindly clemency was extended to all the French. "Give quarter to your countrymen" the order ran, "but kill the foreigners, especially those from Spain."

**Siege of Paris.**—After this battle, Henry marched again upon Paris, and besieged the city. The people were soon in such a state of starvation that having devoured every living thing in the city, they were forced to eat the very dirt in the streets.

The Spanish Ambassador, Mendoza, did all he could to help them. He had huge cauldrons set up outside his house and taught the citizens how to make porridge with horses' bran.

## HENRY OF NAVARRE 1572-1610 A.D. 171

But even this failed. The old men and women were driven out at length, and were suffered by Henry to depart in safety. Then, just as they were at the last gasp, the King of Spain sent an army under Parma to their rescue, and the Huguenot army was forced to retire.

**Henry becomes King of France.**—We have seen how the great wish of Henry was not to win battles but to rule over a happy and united kingdom. He now began to realise that none but a Catholic could possibly do this, for though the Huguenots were ready enough to obey one who would give them peace and liberty of conscience, the Catholics would never take an oath of obedience to a Protestant king. So at this time, acting upon the advice of all his friends, and never caring enthusiastically for the reformed faith, he was instructed in the old religion and became a Roman Catholic. As soon as this happened, every town in France opened its gates to him. For everybody was weary to death of the long war, and longed for peace again. None wished for it more than Henry himself, whose often expressed desire was that "every peasant should have a fowl in his pot on Sundays." So Henry of Navarre became Henry IV. of France, and with the help of Sully, his wise minister of State, began to bring France, impoverished by war, back into a state of prosperity.

**Edict of Nantes, 1598.**—But best of all, he ended the miserable religious strife in 1598 by publishing an order, called the Edict of Nantes, which gave the Huguenots the rights they had always claimed.

Hundreds of refugees now returned to their native land, and brought with them many flourishing trades, such as that of the silk manufacture for which France began to be noted.

**Last days of Henry.**—For twelve years Henry ruled in peace; but though all seemed outwardly to be well, he knew that Spain, which had now lost Holland, would do anything to bring about his fall. His own wife he suspected to be in sympathy with Philip II. rather than with himself, and when at length he promised to help the German princes against the Catholic Emperor, he became very uneasy in mind about his own safety. Driving in his carriage to the house of Sully, a block in the road brought his carriage to a standstill. Suddenly a man sprang upon the wheel



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and stuck his knife twice through the body of the king. "I am wounded," cried Henry, and fell back upon the seat. His companion threw a cloak over his body and ordered the carriage to be driven back to the palace, when it was found that the king was dead.

So died in 1610 a king who had done more for France than any other of her former sovereigns. He had healed the breach between the two great religious parties, brought back peace and prosperity to the land, and had endeared the name of king to a people who had had small reason to feel affection for that title. In his days were laid the foundations of the greatness of France during the seventeenth century, a period which we may call the Golden Age of France.

### SUMMARY.—CHAPTER XXXIV.

- I. *Henry of Navarre.*  
His character. Early Life. Head of the Huguenot Party.  
Opposed by Henry III. and Henry of Guise.
- II. *The League.*  
Its object—to bind together all Catholics against a Protestant king.  
War of the Three Henrys.  
Guise makes himself "King of Paris."  
The Day of Barricades. Death of Henry III.
- III. *Henry of Navarre* tries to be King of France.  
Battle of Ivry, 1590. Siege of Paris. Relief brought by Parma.  
Henry becomes a Catholic and is made king of all France.
- IV. *Edict of Nantes, 1598.*  
Effect on the land.  
Last days of Henry IV. His murder.  
His work in France.

### QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER XXXIV.

- A 1. What do you know of the League, the King of Paris, War of the Three Henrys, Day of Barricades, Siege of Paris, Edict of Nantes?
  2. Give an account of the Battle of Ivry.
  - B 1. Discuss the character of Henry of Navarre.
  2. What were the effects of the Edict of Nantes in France?
- Read.—"Ivry" (Macaulay).  
"A Gentleman of France" (Stanley Weyman).  
"Margaret of Valois" (Dumas).

## EPOCH VI

# THE STRUGGLE FOR SUPREMACY IN EUROPE

### CHAPTER XXXV

#### THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR IN GERMANY

1618-1648 A.D.

##### Germany.

**W**E must now turn our attention to Germany, which became the centre upon which the eyes of Europe were fixed during the first part of the seventeenth century. When we last looked at the history of Germany, we found that country rapidly assimilating the doctrine of Luther, and becoming in great part a Protestant kingdom under a Catholic sovereign, a state of things which was not likely to result in peace and happiness.

**Sweden.**—But the hero of the great war which was caused by religious differences in Germany, was no German but a Swede, Gustavus Adolphus.

The past history of Sweden had been mixed up with that of Denmark and Norway, especially in the end of the fourteenth century, when they were united together under the warlike queen, Margaret of Denmark.

The spirit of independence was strong in Swedish hearts. They were of the same blood as the Vikings of old, and under Gustavus Vasa, their prince, they rose in revolt against the Danes. A stormy life was that of Gustavus. Imprisonments and escapes disguises and dramatic revelations of himself sometimes in the heart of the copper mine where he had worked as a miner, sometimes in the depth of the mountain valleys, where, like

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and Jer Tell, he drilled and taught the country people how to warfare for battle,—all these things enter into his life-story.

**Freedom of Sweden, 1523.**—In 1523, after many a hard struggle, Sweden was free and Gustavus Vasa, the idol of the Swedes, was crowned king. Under his wise rule the country made vast strides towards civilisation and prosperity. A fine navy was built, the army was strengthened, learning was encouraged, and the Lutheran religion became established in the land.

**Gustavus Adolphus.**—His grandson, Gustavus Adolphus, succeeded to the throne at a troubled time. For his claim was disputed by his cousin Sigismund, King of Poland, who was descended from the elder branch of the family, and Denmark was trying very hard to regain her former territory. The latter war was ended by a treaty brought about by James I. of England, who had married the Princess Anne of Denmark and was therefore a connection of the king of that country. Sigismund was quelled for a time, and meanwhile the young Gustavus, who had already proved himself a wise and prudent soldier, did much to encourage the prosperity of his country during the short interval that elapsed before he was called upon to take a very prominent part in European affairs.

**The Thirty Years' War.**—We must now return to Germany, which, you will remember, was ruled over by an Emperor who had little power over the various states, all governed by their own independent princes, many of whom were at this time Protestants. The Emperor Ferdinand II., who was one of the haughtiest and most intolerant sovereigns of the House of Austria, became the representative of the Catholic religion in Germany, and determined to crush the power of the Protestant princes, and to restore the old faith in the land.

It was his efforts in these directions that stirred Henry IV. of France to send help to the Protestants, but his assassination removed that source of aid. Ferdinand proceeded to begin to crush the inhabitants of Bohemia by setting on foot such a persecution of the Protestants that they revolted against him, and gave their crown to Frederick V., the Elector Palatine, son-in-law of James of England. This was the beginning of the Thirty Years' War, for the Catholic League of Germany at once came

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forward to support Ferdinand, while Frederick looked to England and the Lutheran League for support. James I., however, too cautious and too vacillating to be of any practical use. Lutherans hung back, and only a small army under Count Ernest of Mansfield came to the support of Frederick, whom they found being attacked by the Austrians in the town of Prague. The new-comers did their best, but Frederick was too cowardly or too lazy to do anything for himself. He is said to have been dining quietly in his castle at the very time that the Battle of Prague was being fought and won by his enemies. He was driven out of his dominions, and the House of Austria triumphed.

**Wallenstein and the Danish War.**—At this crisis the King of England was again appealed to, and though he would not furnish an English army, he tried to secure the help of Denmark and Sweden for the Protestant cause. But Gustavus Adolphus was engaged in a second war with Poland, the ally of Austria, and that of Christian IV., King of Denmark, was the only aid he succeeded in obtaining. This Danish War, as it was called, was a contest, not between the Lutheran and Catholic Leagues, but between the states of the Baltic and Denmark on one side, and Count Wallenstein with his army on the other. This Wallenstein was a favourite officer of the Emperor, who offered at this time to raise an army for the latter on his own account, if he might be given a free hand in the matter. So all the ruffians and adventurers of Europe who wished to live by robbery and bloodshed collected round him till he had an army of 50,000 men. With this at his back he marched, like some terrible, devastating hurricane upon the Baltic States. Count Ernest of Mansfield was completely defeated, and soon afterwards died, bidding his army stand together and hold out like men. Christian IV. was beaten, and becoming disheartened wished to return to his own kingdom. Stralsund, the strong city of the Baltic coast, would have been taken. Indeed Wallenstein had sworn to take it "even if it were fastened by chains to heaven"; but a band of Swedes, and a tiny army of Scotchmen, under one Alexander Leslie, held the city against him, and he was forced to retreat. With this exception, however, Wallenstein so crushed the Northern States that he gave himself the proud title of General of the Baltic, and then proceeding southwards, fell upon the lands of Germany, crushing and

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subduing, robbing and devastating, till the people died of hunger in hundreds and thousands, and were found dead by the roadsides with their mouths full of raw weeds. Germany seemed doomed. But at this juncture the mad career of Wallenstein was suddenly checked by the action of Richelieu, the great minister of France, who persuaded the Emperor to see that it would be for his own advantage for the future to dismiss Wallenstein from power.

**Gustavus Adolphus, 1630.**—Scarcely had this step been taken when Gustavus Adolphus, who had ended the Polish war, left Sweden for ever, in order to spend his life and strength in defending the cause of the oppressed and down-trodden Germans.

Many Scotch and English troops had eagerly joined him in the good work, partly from sympathy with the oppressed, partly from love of warfare at a time when England was at peace.

With brave hearts and stalwart limbs the army of the North set foot on German soil, and Gustavus was the first to seize a spade and begin to dig the entrenchments of the camp. Little was known about the Northern kingdom by the House of Austria. The Emperor remembered the weakness of the Danish sovereign, and remarked with a sneer that the "Snow king" would melt when he penetrated to the South. But he soon found his mistake. When one of his generals, after the first engagement, asked for a truce in consequence of the bitter cold, Gustavus replied that the Swedes did not know what winter meant. In a short time he had driven the Imperialists, as the officers of the Emperor were called, from the Northern States, and would have done much more had not the foolish jealousy of the Protestant Electors of Saxony and Brandenburg stood in his way, by making them refuse to help him in any direction.

Deeply mortified and resentful, the Northern king could only remind them that they would have to answer at the day of Judgment that they would do nothing for the cause of God, and meantime watch with horror the atrocities committed by the Austrian general Tilly on the inhabitants of the besieged town of Magdeburg, which was sacked by him in a manner too horrible to be described. But the rapid victories of Gustavus eventually shamed or encouraged the Saxons into an alliance, and dressed in their brand-new uniforms, with shining weapons, they joined the ragged, toil-worn army of the Swedes at the Battle of Leipsic (1631). But the heavy onrush of

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Tilly's forces sent the Saxons flying, and it was the rapid, nimble movements of the Swedes which made that battle a great victory for Gustavus.

A victorious march to the Rhine was then begun. Everywhere the people poured out to welcome their deliverer and to gaze in awe upon the army from the distant North, which never robbed or pillaged, and paid money for all that it required, and which had already done so much to restore freedom to Germany.

Sweeping the forces of Tilly before him, he crossed from the Rhine to the Danube, implanting a feeling of uneasiness even in the breast of the not unfriendly French king, who exclaimed, "This Goth must be stopped." Tilly fell, mortally wounded in a great battle, and the House of Austria was trembling to its foundations, when suddenly Wallenstein met him face to face with a great army at his back.

**The Last Struggle.**—It had taken much persuasion to induce the deposed general to come to the assistance of the quaking Emperor. "I am too happy in my retirement," he replied to all requests for his assistance. But a promise of power equal to that of the Emperor prevailed, and Wallenstein marched to face the Swedish king at Lutzen.

**Battle of Lutzen, 1632.**—On the morning of the battle, Gustavus had put aside his armour because it chafed a recent wound, and rode forth unprotected to the fight, saying quietly, "God is my armour." He was the first to begin the attack and the Imperial forces were giving way in all directions save one, where the Swedish army seemed beaten back. Galloping up to check their retreat, the king, deceived by the fog, threw himself into the enemy's ranks and fell, pierced by two bullets. A young officer who was close behind him, dismounted hurriedly and began to staunch his wound, while the surrounding horsemen asked eagerly who he was. The aide-de-camp would not reply, but Gustavus, raising his head, said feebly, "I was the King of Sweden." Then they shot him down, and the Snow King, purest and bravest of men, lay prostrate in the dust. But Wallenstein was defeated on that day and on others, while Oxenstiern, the brave Swedish general who succeeded Gustavus, carried on the war.

**Death of Wallenstein.**—The aim of Wallenstein, that stern

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and terrible man, who was never seen to laugh, nor to address one of his soldiers except to make his fortune or sign his death-warrant, was not to crush the Protestants, but to bring all the independent states of Germany under the Emperor's authority. But whispers were afloat concerning his fidelity ; it was commonly reported that he was about to make himself King of Bohemia, and the Emperor determined once more to take the command of the army from him. Hearing of this, Wallenstein probably made up his mind to revolt, and retiring to the Castle of Egar, summoned his officers and forced them to take an oath to support him. But such a man had many enemies. A certain Colonel Butler in one of his regiments reported to the two Scotch officers, Gordon and Leslie, who held the Castle of Egar for the Emperor, that he had been commissioned to take Wallenstein, alive or dead. These three men decided to kill the "traitors," as they were now looked upon. His chief officers were killed as they sat at supper, and then, proceeding to the great general's bed-chamber, a certain Irish captain assassinated him as he rose from his chair to greet him.

After the death of Wallenstein, disunion among the Protestants brought about the disastrous Peace of Prague, which once more put all power into the hands of Austria. To prevent the Emperor from becoming too powerful, Richelieu, the great French minister intervened. The war was now no longer a religious strife, but a contest for power between France and Austria. Hordes of armed men were fast reducing Germany to a desert land, and it was not until the masterly policy of Marshal Turenne, the greatest of French soldiers, in Bavaria, in 1646 and 1647, showed the Austrians the hopelessness of prolonging the strife, that the war ended. By the Treaty of Westphalia the religious liberty of the people was restored, and the French obtained Alsace, besides some other important territory in Germany, thus succeeding to much of the power of the House of Austria.

This long war was the last of the religious struggles in Europe. Henceforth some other moving power took the place of discord between Protestants and Catholics ; and the era of reformation ends.

### SUMMARY.—CHAPTER XXXV.

#### I. History and growth of *Sweden*.

Gustavus Vasa obtains the freedom of Sweden in 1523.

- II. *Gustavus Adolphus*.  
War in Poland. Encourages prosperity of Sweden.
- III. *The Thirty Years' War* (1618-1648).  
*Causes* (a) Ambition of House of Austria ; (b) Desire to check Lutheranism.  
War begins in Bohemia. Elector Frederick made king.  
Defeat of Frederick at Battle of Prague, 1621.
- IV. *Wallenstein and the Danish War*.  
Christian IV. of Denmark the ally of Protestants. Siege of Stralsund.  
Defeats by Wallenstein, "General of the Baltic."  
Ruins Germany. Wallenstein dismissed from power.
- V. *Gustavus Adolphus to the rescue*.  
The "Snow-King" recovers Northern States and saves Germany.  
Siege of Magdeburg by Tilly.  
Battle of Leipzig won by Gustavus. March to the Rhine.  
Last struggle. Battle of Lutzen, 1632. Death of Gustavus.
- VI. *Death of Wallenstein*.  
France v. Austria. Treaty of Westphalia (1648) ends war.

## QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER XXXV.

- A 1. What were (a) the causes, (b) the result of the Thirty Years' War?  
2. Name the chief leaders on either side and say what you know of one of them.
- B 1. Into what periods would you divide the Thirty Years' War? Give the causes and effects of the war.  
2. Discuss the career and character of *either* Wallenstein *or* Gustavus Adolphus.
- Read*.—Schiller's "Wallenstein."  
"The Lion of the North" (Henty).

## CHAPTER XXXVI

## FRANCE AND RICHELIEU

1614-1642 A.D.

**State of France in 1624.**—When Henry IV. was dead, a child of nine years old sat upon the French throne, and the reins of government fell into the hands of the Queen-Mother, Mary de Medici, the second wife of the late king.

**Policy of the Regent.**—This woman set to work at once to undo much of the work that Henry IV. had accomplished. She



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won over the great lords who had stood aloof from her husband by lavish presents of the riches which Sully had helped to lay up for Henry against a time of war, took up a position of intolerance towards the Huguenots, and determined to make an alliance with Spain and with Austria, the staunch ally of that country. Her son, Louis XIII., was married, by her arrangement, to Anne of Austria, a young Spanish princess, and by her influence, directly the king came of age, which he did at thirteen, the States-General, the Parliament of France, which had ventured to lay before him the complaints of his poorer subjects, were dismissed, and did not sit again in France for one hundred and seventy years. About this time a clever young priest named Richelieu came under the notice of the queen, who gave him a post at Court, and quickly advanced him to a position of authority. By her means he became a cardinal, a member of the King's Council and chief minister of State. The affairs of France during this reign were entirely in the hands of this clever and unscrupulous man, who brought the country to such a pitch of power and glory as she had never before known.

**Aims of Richelieu.**—The two great aims of Richelieu were to increase the power of France by opposing, as far as possible, the encroaching policy of the House of Austria, and to crush the Huguenots in France. Let us see how far he carried these out.

With regard to the House of Austria, the Cardinal's idea was to help the enemies of that power as far as possible, and thus to prevent the growth of authority in that direction.

So he proceeded to send help to the Protestants in Germany, and to get the kingdoms of the North of Europe to make a league together against Austria. To this belonged, as we should expect, England, Holland, the North German princes, Denmark and Sweden, as well as France herself. In Italy, also, he was able to send assistance to the enemies of Spain.

**La Rochelle, 1627.**—He next turned his attention to the Huguenots, who now held some of the most important towns in France, and whom, for political reasons, he intended to crush. One of their chief towns was the port of La Rochelle, the headquarters of the Huguenots, who were so much disturbed by finding a royal fort was being built up in their midst, that they closed the gates of the city and called upon the English to come to their

help. A large fleet under the Duke of Buckingham was sent by Charles of England to their aid, but they never got near the city, for the indomitable Cardinal had built up a wall of earth across the mouth of the harbour so that no ships could get in. His army surrounded the city by land, and lay for a year and a half before the walls with the Cardinal in their midst. The inhabitants held out with the utmost courage; their governor, Guiton, warned them that he would kill the first man who spoke of giving up the town; grass and shell-fish became their only food, and finally they heard that their English friends were making an alliance with Richelieu. Then they gave up in despair, and, remembering the days of Guise, expected a bloody vengeance. But, although the walls of Rochelle were pulled down, the people were told that they might worship as they liked, so long as they submitted to the king's authority. Thus religious warfare ended in France, under the great minister's rule.

**Character of Richelieu.**—The position of Richelieu was now a strange one. He was by far the most powerful man in France, and stood almost alone. The queen-mother hated him for his quiet opposition to her rash designs, the weak Louis feared and disliked him for his overbearing pride and ambition, the idle lords who hung about the court had good reason to feel distrust and fear of the great Cardinal, whose retinue equalled that of the king, and who kept a prison for his enemies in his own house. No doubt he was actuated largely by a love of power, but his aim was by no means selfish. He was determined that France should become a great power by his means, and in order to carry this out, he knew neither hesitation nor scruple. "I never venture," said he, on one occasion, "to undertake anything without having well reflected upon it; but when once I have resolved, I go straight to my object, I cut through everything, I hew down everything, and afterwards cover all with my red robe."

**The Day of Dupes.**—Many plots were made against the life and position of such a man as this. On one occasion, known afterwards as the Day of Dupes, Mary de Medici, the courtiers and some of the ministers had arranged with the king that Richelieu should be dismissed from power. The Cardinal heard of the plot, met and talked with Louis for a quarter of an hour, and that same evening saw the queen's flight from court, and the chiefs of the conspiracy in prison, where many of them were beheaded. The

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nobles began to feel that their vaunted power no longer existed; one man only represented the State, and that man was Richelieu. Even the weak king so often was forced to recognise that the enemies of the Cardinal were the enemies of France, that, in spite of secret dread and much real jealousy, he wrote to him, "I love you more than ever, whatever false stories people may tell."

**End of Richelieu.**—Just before his last illness, Richelieu carried the war he had just declared with Spain into the enemy's own country. Both he and the king went with the army, and all went well for France. But the old Cardinal became so alarmingly ill that he was carried back to Paris, where he soon realised that he was a dying man.

"Do you forgive your enemies?" asked his confessor at the last. "I never had any save those of France," truly answered the old man, whose personal ambition, great as it was, was swamped in his ideal of the glory of his fatherland.

Yet the people rejoiced when he died; for as it has been well said, "He strove to make Louis the first man in Europe but the second in France," and men dreaded the powerful intellect and restless, untiring activity which existed within the feeble body.

"Richelieu is gone," they told the king in hushed tones, who only answered, "Then there is a great statesman dead!" and resumed his game of cards.

But the power of France during the seventeenth century was the work of one man, and that man was Cardinal Richelieu.

### SUMMARY.—CHAPTER XXXVI.

#### I. *State of France in 1624.*

Influence of queen-mother. Alliance with Spain.  
Increased power of nobles. Richelieu comes into power.

#### II. *Aims of Richelieu.*

(a) To decrease the power of House of Austria.  
(b) To crush all opposition to the royal influence in France.  
League of Northern kingdoms formed against Spain and Austria. Help sent to German Protestants. Siege of La Rochelle. Treatment of Huguenots.

#### III. *Character of Richelieu.*

The Day of Dupes. Treatment of enemies.  
War with Spain. His death.

## QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER XXXVI.

- A* 1. What were the great aims of Richelieu and how far did he carry them out?  
2. Describe the siege of La Rochelle.
- B* 1. Give an account of the character of Richelieu.  
2. Contrast the condition of France in 1624 and in 1642.
- Read*.—"Under the Red Robe" (Stanley Weyman).

## CHAPTER XXXVII

## THE GOLDEN AGE OF FRANCE, AND ITS DECLINE

1643-1715

The long reign of Louis XIV. lasted from the time of Charles I. of England to the accession of George I. and is famous in history as the age in which France was the most flourishing and influential among all the countries of Europe. We have seen how much Richelieu did to bring about this state of affairs; but, since the new king was but four years old, France might very soon have lost the ground she had gained had it not been for the management of the queen-mother, Anne of Austria and Mazarin, the one friend and adviser whom Richelieu had made.

These two carried on the policy of Richelieu in doing everything they could to make the king an absolute monarch, and were fortunately so fond of one another that they did not act in opposition to each other's aims, as Mary de Medici had done with regard to Richelieu.

Mazarin was even more ambitious to rule over France than Richelieu had been. He therefore had the child king, who seemed naturally a solemn, stupid boy, taught as little as possible about the affairs of the nation, as he wished to keep them all in his own hands. But sometimes a little trait of character peeped out which made the minister foretell uneasily, "He will set off late, but will go farther than others," and that he had "stuff in him to make four kings and one honest man."

During the whole of Louis' minority the war with Spain continued, but it was ended at length by the marriage of the young king with Maria Theresa, the Spanish princess. This was the last

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act of the wily Mazarin, who foresaw that one day the princess might be the Queen of Spain. Mazarin died soon afterwards, and when Frenchmen began to wonder what the state would be under his successor, they were told sharply by the king, "L'Etat, c'est Moi." Well might Mazarin warn Louis never to trust a minister. With one exception, the king put power into the hands of no single man, but arranged that every detail of the government should pass through his own hands. In this way the State was, literally, himself.

**Colbert.**—The one exception to his policy of distrust was Colbert, a plain, awkward man of the people, who, without taking too much upon himself, proved to be the king's right hand in carrying out all such practical schemes as the formation of a navy, the building of bridges and canals, the founding of an Academy and the encouragement of higher education in France.

Meantime Louis, whose great idea was that the greatness of France should be merged in and represented by his own person, was engaged in building at Versailles the most magnificent palace in which a king ever lived. Here he lived, in appearance an absolute monarch, in reality governed by the wills and advice of clever women, one of whom, Madame de Maintenon, became his wife after the queen's death. It was her influence that brought about the unhappy persecution of the Huguenots, which first gave the people reason to distrust and hate the king. Louis was persuaded, by Madame de Maintenon and by the priests, that these quiet industrious folk were the foes of France. He began by oppressing them in several ways, and ended by revoking the Edict of Nantes, which had brought back peace and security to France. For a time it seemed as though this made little difference to the land, except in the fact that thousands fled from France, and thousands more, who disregarded the revocation, were sent to the galleys. But in the future a bitter retribution came upon Louis for this cruel act, and the seeds were already sown of hatred and keen hostility to the ruling powers. Yet outwardly France seemed to flourish in her "Golden Age." Men of letters thronged the court. One found there, amongst other notable men, Molière, the Shakespeare of France, and Racine, who shared his laurels won from the stage, Bossuet, famous for his sermons, La Fontaine, for his witty, charming fables, and Fénelon, the wise tutor of the young Dauphin, who wrote for his royal pupil the story of "Télémaque."

So renowned did the Court of Louis XIV. become that men called this period the "Augustan Age," comparing it with the days of old.

**The Wars of Louis.**—But Louis' ambition, above all others, was to be a conqueror of nations and to win renown by force of arms. He played therefore a prominent part in the European wars of this period, some of which we must now consider.

**Holland.**—The little country of Holland, by reason of its smallness and its nearness to France, was one of the first countries which Louis resolved to attack. The history of this war we shall learn in our next lesson, but meantime we find that though Louis obtained great glory and annexed a certain amount of land, he had to retire before the Staat-holder, William of Orange, against whom, with the aid of Charles II. of England, he opposed himself.

**Treaty of Dover, 1670.**—In this war England, under Charles II., had shown herself a faithless ally. She had at first joined a Triple Alliance between England, Holland and Sweden to check the advance of Louis. But Charles II. was won over by a huge bribe, and by a secret Treaty made at Dover in a boat in which sat Louis, disguised in a heavy cloak, he promised to send an army to aid the French while outwardly posing as their enemy.

For six years this war went on, and when it ended William and Louis still remained bitter enemies, so that when the former became King of England, Louis did all he could to hinder his peace by helping the exiled James II. with men and money to try and regain his throne.

It was in 1688 that the war was again renewed. The rapacity of Louis, his treatment of the exiled Huguenots, his reception of James II., joined with the determination on the part of the different monarchs to maintain the "Balance of Power," as it was called, against the aggressive French king, caused all Europe to arm against him, and for nine years the war raged in France, Germany and the Rhine Provinces, until even the resources of France were drained, and famine and distress reigned in the land. One after another the French generals died, the armies returned exhausted or left their bones to bleach upon foreign battle-fields, until Louis awakened at last to a sense of impending ruin, and the Peace of Ryswick ended the war—a peace which restored the

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different countries to almost the same position as that in which they stood before the war.

**War of the Spanish Succession.**—It would have been well for France if Louis had been content to rest. But the death of the Spanish king engaged him in a yet more disastrous conflict. He at once claimed the Spanish crown for his grandson in right of his own wife Maria. The Elector of Bavaria and the Archduke of Austria were the other claimants, but their deaths gave the crown to the French prince. England, alarmed at the notion of a union of the countries of France and Spain, joined Europe against Louis, and a series of battles began under the great general Marlborough, in which the French were again and again defeated. Louis had now no friend. Each country resented something in his conduct or policy, and the crowds of Huguenot refugees helped to swell the torrent of enmity poured out upon him. At length the great battle of Blenheim laid the lilies of France completely in the dust, and Louis' humiliation was complete. Nine years later the Treaty of Utrecht ended the selfish, vain and long extended war.

**State of France.**—The condition of France, so prosperous at the beginning of this long reign, was pitiable indeed at its close. It is well described by the wise Fenélon, who says, "The whole of France is one great hospital, with no food in it. The people who once loved you (the king) so well, are now losing their trust in you, their friendship and even their respect for you. You are obliged either to leave their rebellions unpunished, or to massacre people whom you have driven to despair, and who are dying every day of illness brought on by famine; the land is almost uncultivated; the cities and the country have lost their inhabitants, commerce has come to an end, and trade brings in no riches."

**The troubles of Louis XIV.**—Just before the end of the last war, a terrible blow fell upon Louis. Within a short time his son, his grandson, and the elder child of the latter all died of malignant fever. The younger great-grandson was with much difficulty saved to be heir to the throne. These misfortunes, together with the fact that his once prosperous country was starving and clamouring for bread weighed heavily upon the mind of the old king. His reign of seventy-two years, which had seen France at the zenith of her power, had seen also almost her lowest

depths of misery and degradation, and had sown the evil seeds of revolution in the days to come. He was now quite alone; even Madame de Maintenon had deserted his dying bed. Sending for his great-grandson, a wondering child of five years old, he spoke these last words to him, "You are soon to be king of a great country. What I commend most earnestly to you is never to forget the obligations you owe to God. Remember that you owe all you are to Him. Try to keep peace with your neighbours; I have been too fond of war; do not imitate me in that, nor in my too great expenditure. Take counsel on all questions, and try to know the best so as always to follow it. Relieve your people as speedily as possible, and do what I have had the misfortune not to be able to do myself." Pathetic words, truly, from the lips of a king who had had greater opportunities than any other, and deeply graven did they become into the mind of his little descendant, who had them painted upon the head of his bed that he might see them by night and day.

So the old lion of France died, and a weak child reigned in his stead. No Richelieu, no Mazarin came forward to bear up the sinking weight of French greatness, and so, while the king inherited the pride of a despotic king, the people, driven to desperation by famine and taxation, were beginning to discover for themselves how hollow and unreal was this royal power to which they had been accustomed, for so many years, to bow.

#### SUMMARY.—CHAPTER XXXVII.

- I. Early reign of Louis XIV. Anne of Austria and Mazarin.  
War with Spain ended by marriage with Maria Theresa.  
Education of the king.
- II. "*L'Etat, c'est Moi.*"  
Despotism and egotism of the king. The work of Colbert.  
Prosperity of France. Palace at Versailles. Influence of Madame de Maintenon brings about the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, 1685.  
Flight of refugees. Effect on France.
- III. *The Augustan Age.*  
Molière and Racine. Bossuet and Fénelon. La Fontaine.
- IV. *The Wars of Louis.*
  - (a) The Dutch War. Holland holds out under William of Orange and thus saves Europe. Peace of Nimeguen.
  - (b) The "Balance of Power." Europe v. Louis. Peace of Ryswick, 1697.
  - (c) War of Spanish Succession. Marlborough. Battle of Blenheim.  
Peace of Utrecht, 1713.



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### V. *State of France.* Fenélon's description.

The troubles of Louis XIV. Advice to his great-grandson.  
His death.

### QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER XXXVII.

- A 1. Name the most important wars waged by Louis XIV. in Europe and the treaties which ended them.  
2. What is meant by the "Augustan" Age of France?  
3. What was the state of France (a) at the beginning, (b) at the end of this reign?

B 1. "*L'Etat c'est Moi.*"

Explain, and trace the effects upon France of this position of affairs.

2. Give a brief summary of the wars of Louis XIV. in Europe.

*Read.*—"The Refugees" (Conan Doyle).

Macaulay's Essay, "War of Succession in Spain."

## CHAPTER XXXVIII

### HOW HOLLAND MAINTAINED THE BALANCE OF POWER

1667-1725

We have lately seen that in the middle of the seventeenth century France, by reason of her unity and progress under Richelieu, was not only the strongest kingdom in Europe, but was also on the watch to seize an early opportunity of extending her power over other countries. Two European kingdoms alone were worthy of her steel. Spain, although she had lost Holland, Portugal and the West Indies, was still, as she has been aptly termed, the "great ship whose prow was in the Indian Ocean and her stern in the Atlantic, but she had lost her mast and rigging and had foundered on the coast, in the tempest of Protestantism." She was still great, by virtue of her past, but her strength was rotten at the core.

Holland, meantime, since she had cut herself loose from Spanish oppression, had thriven apace. Manfully her inhabitants, sturdy and taciturn men, fought against the encroaching ocean with their dykes and dunes, and even took tribute of their enemy in the shape of great hauls of herrings, which, together with their cheese and eggs, were quickly turned into gold pieces. By the middle of the seventeenth century the Dutch had become the

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masters of the sea, and of the trade of the Indies, and had shown themselves to be the formidable opponents of Spain. It was therefore by means of Holland that Louis XIV. determined to get a footing in Europe. But he rightly judged that before this could be done, Spain must be weakened by land and Holland by sea. So he made a kind of treaty with the Dutch against Spain and looked on while the Dutch and Spanish fleets injured each other's vessels in their obstinate sea-fights, without taking much part himself. The death of the Spanish king gave him his chance however, and he promptly laid claim to Flanders and that part of the Low Countries over which Spain still held rule, in virtue of his wife, the Spanish princess. A gorgeous retinue went forth to conquer, with the king, ministers, courtiers, and ladies of the court at the head of the army. Flanders was taken, together with the Spanish territory called *Franche Compté*, in so short a time that the indignant Spanish Court wrote to the governor of the province that "The King of France should have sent his lacqueys to take it instead of troubling to come himself." But Holland looked with suspicion at her too powerful neighbour, and actually induced England and Sweden to join her in protecting Spain against France. *Franche Compté* had to be restored and only Flanders retained; and from this event dates the implacable hatred of Louis towards the Dutch, who had dared to say to him in all his glory, "Thus far, and no further."

**War with Holland.**—The Stadt-holder, or Governor of the United Provinces, was still a member of the same house of Orange which had set the Republic on foot. The grandson of William the Silent now represented the family, but the influence of the House of Orange during his father's lifetime had been much undermined by the De Witts, two brothers who headed the naval party in Holland, and by their success at sea had succeeded in convincing the people for the time that they, and not the land party under Orange, were the most important in the State. So the forts were left unprotected, and the troops undrilled, while the De Witts sailed triumphantly round the coast, as though Holland were an island, and all they had to do was to protect the sea-shore.

Hence it came about that a huge French army marched unopposed into Holland, and would have easily conquered her, had not a wish to garrison the forts, so quickly taken, divided the

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troops and given the country time to decide upon their course. Blind rage against the De Witts possessed them at first; the brothers were seized at the Hague and brutally murdered by an infuriated mob, while the man of iron nerves and determined will, William of Orange, looked sternly on.

**William III. of Orange.**—This man who, as a youth of twenty-two was appointed Stadtholder and General of the Forces, was filled with two passions only—hatred of France and love of his country. Within his thin and sickly frame was hidden an inflexible will and a calm judgment which stood him in good stead in the moment of Holland's greatest peril. When men asked him what was to be done in the face of this vast army, his characteristic answer, given with wonted brevity was, "We must die in the last ditch."

His first attempt was directed to driving the French from Holland, and since his army was not nearly strong enough to accomplish this, he determined to drown the country with its unwelcome visitors. Meantime the Dutch had escaped in large numbers to their ships and were preparing to sail away to found a new country elsewhere, but were prevented by William's commands. Opening the sluices and piercing the dykes, he looked on grimly as the French army in confusion began to retreat. A great storm drove the French and English navy from the coast, where Ruyter still held the sea, and brought his fleet to anchor after a great victory in the watery plain of what had once been Amsterdam.

**Treaty of Nimeguen, 1678.**—William's next step was to convince the powers of Europe that if Holland were conquered by the French king, there would exist no barrier to keep him from over-running the remainder of the Continent, and the whole of Europe prepared to take up arms against him. For six years the war went on. France resumed her hold over Franche Compté, and other territories, and Holland was only just able to hold her own, though she could insist upon making favourable terms at the Treaty which ended the conflict for a time.

About this time William of Orange married Mary, daughter of the prince who was afterwards James II. of England. The English were pleased with this arrangement, for William was next heir after his wife and her sister Anne to the English throne, and

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they much approved of his courageous stand against the powerful French king, now at the height of his greatness.

**The Bloodless Revolution, 1689.**—At the period when as we saw in the last lesson, Louis XIV. was preparing once more to face the whole of Europe with his arms, a revolution in England overthrew the power of James II., and the English, conscious of the need of a man's strong hand to govern them, requested William of Orange to come to England, and complete the arrangements which forced James into exile. William and his wife, Mary, were then crowned king and queen of England. This was not accomplished without trouble in Scotland and Ireland, from which latter country ten thousand Irishmen went forth to join the service of Louis XIV., who had warmly embraced the cause of the exiled king.

**Grand Alliance.**—But the chief interests of William III. still lay in Holland, where he continued to keep a watchful guard over the movements of the French king, who had won so many battles in Flanders and Germany that Luxembourg, his great general, was called the "Upholsterer of Notre Dame," from the number of flags he brought back to hang upon the walls of that cathedral. Every year William crossed to the Low Countries to carry on the campaign which kept France in check, though it could not drive her out. His wife, Mary of England, by her words of cheer and her tactful measures kept the French army from the shores of England, and encouraged the English navy to win the great sea battle of La Hogue.

**Peace of Ryswick, 1697.**—In 1697 Louis XIV. was forced to sign the Peace of Ryswick, whereby he acknowledged his enemy William as King of England, and refused to help the cause of James and his descendants.

Three years later, William once more came forward in opposition to Louis, who was then preparing to seize the crown of Spain for his grandson. But before Holland or England could take any decided step in the war, the silent, lonely, reserved Dutchman, who had spent his life in opposing a barrier to France which should prevent her conquering the whole of Europe, was thrown from his horse and died.

For years his great general, Marlborough, carried on his policy and kept the French army in check in the Netherlands, and, as

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we have seen, it was his great success at Blenheim in 1704 that drove Louis back to his own dominions.

Thus in the seventeenth century did little Holland maintain the Balance of Power in Europe, and prevented an undue portion of it from falling into the hands of one man.

### SUMMARY.—CHAPTER XXXVIII.

- I. *State of Spain, France, Holland.*  
Louis XIV. determines to gain a foothold in Holland.  
Seizes Flanders and Franche Compté.
- II. *War with Holland.*  
William III. of Orange heads the land-party, De Witt the sea-party.  
French army enters Holland. Murder of the De Witts.  
Character of William of Orange. Holland is flooded and the French driven out. Treaty of Nimeguen, 1678.
- III. *Marriage of William with Mary of England.*  
The Bloodless Revolution, 1689. Crowned King and Queen of England. How the Balance of Power is maintained.  
The grand Alliance. Peace of Ryswick, 1697.
- IV. *War of Spanish Succession begins, 1700.*  
Death of William. Marlborough keeps the French in check in the Low Countries.  
Treaty of Utrecht.

### QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER XXXVIII.

- A 1. What do you know of De Witt, the Bloodless Revolution, Peace of Ryswick, Battle of La Hogue, Balance of Power?
2. What was the great work of William III. of Orange?
- B 1. Give an account of the policy of William of Orange with regard to France.
2. Describe the character of William III.

## CHAPTER XXXIX

### HOW THE CIVILISATION OF RUSSIA WAS ACCOMPLISHED

1400-1865

Away to the East of Europe, and covering in area the greater part of the continent, lies the vast kingdom of Russia, of whose existence we scarcely hear in history until the end of the fifteenth

century, but which nevertheless became, in the course of the next two centuries, one of the most important Powers of Europe.

**The origin of Russia.**—Of the early history of this country very little is known. Three Viking brothers seem to have settled there in 862 A.D. and to have infused into the inhabitants of the Slavonic race some of the vigour and energy which the Franks received from the Northmen. The great grandson of one of these early chieftains is said to have been converted to Christianity in the tenth century. Three centuries later a great immigration of the Mongols of Central Asia took place. These Mongols were barbarians, and Russia was ruled by them for two hundred and fifty years. Hence we find this country, which, you will remember, had never been affected by Roman colonisation, in spite of the fact that the cornfields of her southern slopes were the main source of food for both Greece and Rome, whole centuries behind the rest of Europe in civilisation.

**Influence of the Mongols, 1238-1380.**—The city of Moscow first became of importance during the Mongolian rule, but when in the fourteenth century Ivan II. became Grand Duke of Moscow and found himself strong enough to drive out the Mongols and bring their rule to an end, it was found that they had made little impression upon the original race of mixed Slavs and Northmen.

Their chief legacy was the "kaftan," or long embroidered robe, and the "knout," the cruel knotted scourge which took such a prominent part in Russian penalties up till quite recent times.

**Ivan III., 1462-1505.**—Almost immediately after the Mongolian tyranny had ended, Russia began to take some strides towards civilisation under the iron rule of Ivan, who began at once to build a new empire upon the ruins of the Mongols. He first took the title of Czar, a contraction of Cæsar, and by his marriage with Sophia or Zoe, daughter of the last Emperor of Constantinople, managed to induce certain learned Greeks to settle in the land. But these latter must have been greatly astounded at the "civilisation" of Ivan, when they found him putting to death the doctor who had failed to cure his son of the gout, and exercising all manner of cruel tyrannies upon his trembling subjects.

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**Ivan the Terrible, 1583-1584.**—But Russia was still too much cut off from the rest of Europe to make much progress until the reign of Ivan Vasilovitch—the “Terrible,” who succeeded, in spite of his tyrannical rule, in making Russia feared, if not respected, in Europe.

One of his chief aims was to make an alliance with Elizabeth of England, and when the queen sent him back an undecided answer to his request he replied by a torrent of fierce reproach, in which he taunted her with being under the thumb of her nobles. Later on he wished to marry an English lady, but she, fortunately for her future happiness, was so terrified at what she heard of the character of her future husband, that she refused to leave England and broke off the match. But he succeeded in establishing a regular system of trade with England, and encouraged by him, the Englishman, Richard Chancellor, in his search for the North West Passage, came upon the little settlement of Archangel which soon became a thriving port.

Moscow, meantime, continued to be the chief city of the kingdom. Great buildings such as the famous Kremlin began to be built there, of whose beauty and fame Ivan was so jealous that he is said to have had the architect's eyes put out lest he should reproduce them elsewhere. The printing press was also introduced by him.

But though Ivan the Terrible had pushed forward the progress of Russia, his subjects hated him with deadly hatred. They dared not touch him, but they tried to rid themselves of his brood. His son Dmitri, when a child of four years old, was seen at one moment to be playing in the garden by his governess. At the next he lay bleeding and dead upon the ground. This led, after the death of Ivan, to the appearance of a pretender, the false Dmitri, who for many years kept the kingdom in a state of internal struggle, during which she receded to a great degree from the point of progress to which she had reached under Ivan IV., while a race of Cossacks, a people of mixed Pole and Tartar blood, gradually assumed a position of importance in the South.

**Peter the Great, b. 1672 (1689-1725).**—But in the year that saw the repulses of the French from Holland was born a child, Peter, who was destined to make Russia great indeed. Even as a young boy it was easy to see that all his interest lay in practical work, for casting aside his books he was off to the carpenter's

shop or the barrack-yard, where very early in his career he had trained a little regiment of schoolfellows in the art of war. Peter, afterwards known as the Great, was called upon to begin his work as king when he was only seventeen years old. He soon found himself at war with the Turks, from whom he managed to wrest Azov, which became an important means of communication with the West of Europe. But he was determined not to waste all his energies in war; much remained to be done by him before Russia could be brought abreast with other European nations in civilisation. Realising that intercourse with other nations would be the best way of accomplishing this, Peter invited foreigners to settle in the land, gave them positions of importance, and having left the care of his kingdom to the Scotchman, Patrick Gordon, set out on a tour to Western Europe.

He spent some time in a dockyard in Holland where the Dutchman, Pieter Baas, was his master; then, setting out in his well-worn 'prentice's clothes for England, he worked for some months in the docks at Deptford. An amusing account is given of his visit to this country. Although he lived quite simply and unobtrusively, it was thought right to offer him Sayes Court for his abode. The owner, Mr Evelyn, when he returned to it after the royal visitor had gone, was dismayed to find all the locks of the doors broken, and the grass and hedges destroyed in the beautiful gardens, and was told in explanation that the Czar had used the latter for exhibition of gymnastic feats and had probably been studying the principles of mechanics in the door-locks.

**Revolt in Russia.**—Equipped with Dutch and English information, Peter returned to Russia to find Moscow in a state of revolution. This was promptly put down with so stern a hand that men recalled the days of Ivan the Terrible, as they saw the Kremlin filled with corpses and the streets of Moscow stained with blood.

**War with Sweden and the Cossacks.**—Undeterred by this example, the Cossacks were the next to rebel. They were incited to do this by the powerful Charles XII. of Sweden, who held the border of land which lies on the Russian side of the Baltic. Mazeppa, the brave chief of the Cossacks, joined Charles, and their joint armies invaded Russia in the hope of enlarging the Swedish territory there. But the wild recklessness of the Swedish king, prevailing as it did over the prudent counsels of Mazeppa, was the ruin of the unfortunate Cossacks, and speedily ended the



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hopes of the Swedish king. Their strength was so broken in the great Battle of Poltava, that Charles was forced to retreat in a litter, and was never able to recover his power in Europe, while Mazeppa, whom Peter demanded as his lawful prey, died before he could be given up.

By means of this war, Russia seized upon the Baltic shore, where the great city of S. Petersburg soon reared its stately walls, and less than a century later the greater part of Poland also fell into the hands of Peter's successors.

**Reforms of Peter.**—Meantime, within Russia itself, many sweeping reforms were made in Church and State. Even the dress and appearance of his subjects came under the sphere of Peter's despotism; and modern attire and shaven chins took the place of the kaftan and sweeping beard of former days. It was at this time also that Russia was made to adopt the modern calendar, and ceased to reckon from the creation of the world. But his most important act was the maintenance of an excellent navy, such as bade fair to rival that of England.

**Alexis.**—The last days of Peter the Great were troubled by the conduct of his son Alexis, whose determination to become a monk was a deep disappointment to his father, who thwarted it at every turn. Possibly from disgust at this opposition, the youth became surly and contrary in the extreme. He announced openly that on his accession he would do his best to undo the work his father had done, and at length was discovered in a conspiracy which undertook to do so while Peter yet lived. All Russia was to return to Asiatic life and barbarism, the navy was to be given up, and all reforms cancelled. No wonder that Peter's natural affection was entirely swallowed up in rage and mortification, that such a course could be contemplated by his own son. There was but one thing to be done, and, like Brutus of old, he condemned Alexis to death as a traitor to his country. The wretched youth is said to have succumbed under the terrible knout.

**Subsequent history of Russia.**—Peter the Great died in 1725. His kingdom passed into the hands of a succession of queens, who maintained his system of government, and helped forward the progress of the country. But she does not come prominently into European history till the time of her invasion by Napoleon, of which we shall hear in a later lesson. The chief incidents in

her history in the nineteenth century were the annexation of the whole of Poland, her war against Turkey, fought in the famous battle-ground of the Crimea, and, last but not least, the emancipation of the Serfs. By this last act a greater step towards progress has been made than even by the innovations of Peter the Great. For freedom is necessary to the growth and progress of any nation, although it took and will take many years to wipe out the effect of centuries of slavery from the land.

SUMMARY.—CHAPTER XXXIX.

- I. *Early History of Russia.*  
The Slavs and Northmen.  
The Mongolian tyranny, 1238-1380.  
Growth of Moscow. Fall of Mongols under Ivan II.
- II. *Ivan III.*, 1462-1505, and *Ivan the Terrible*, 1583-1584.  
Beginning of civilisation. Greek influence.  
Aim of Ivan IV. English alliance and trade.  
Archangel founded by Richard Chancellor.
- III. *Peter the Great*, 1689-1725.  
Azov taken. Visit to Europe.  
Revolt of Cossacks and war with Charles XII. of Sweden.  
Mazeppa. Power of Charles crushed. Baltic seized.  
S. Petersburg built.  
Reforms of Peter. His navy.
- IV. *The Story of Alexis.*  
Death of Peter the Great.  
Subsequent events in Russia.

QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER XXXIX.

- A 1. What important coast towns were seized or founded by Peter the Great? State why they are important.
2. What did Peter the Great do for Russia?
- B 1. Contrast the state of Russia with other parts of Europe in the sixteenth and eighteenth centuries.
2. Describe the result of the wars in which Peter the Great was engaged.

## CHAPTER XL

## THE RISE OF PRUSSIA. FREDERICK THE GREAT

1700-1786

**History of Prussia.**—In the beginning of the eighteenth century, while Peter the Great was still hard at work at the improvement of his country, a new kingdom arose in Europe, known as the kingdom of Prussia. The district of Germany previously known by this name was a woody and well-watered tract of country lying along the Baltic coast, where, early in the thirteenth century an offshoot of the Crusaders' army, known as the Teutonic knights had settled, in order to convert and civilise the heathen population.

These Teutonic knights had been originally banded together to help the sick and wounded on the battle-fields, much as the Knights Hospitallers had done; they flourished on German soil and in the course of years made the district of Prussia rich and prosperous. Gradually, however, their power declined, and much of their land was seized by their neighbours, the Poles. Finally they gave place altogether to the princes of the House of Brandenburg, the nearest province, who made Prussia into a dukedom, and in 1618 the two provinces were united together.

It did not become of any importance, however, until the days of Frederick William, known as the "Great Elector," who held it at the time that Louis XIV. was trying to conquer Europe.

**First King of Prussia, 1700.**—The Elector's son, Frederick, became in 1700 the first king of Prussia. But nobody considered it a kingdom of any importance even in the days of his grandson, another Frederick William. This latter king was of a rough, half savage nature, whose passionate temper and ungovernable rages kept both his subjects and his children in continual terror. He used to kick women in the streets and bid them go home and mind their babies; he treated his son with systematic cruelty, and he made religion such a source of gloom and misery that it was little wonder that the prince tried to do without it altogether. But one weak point he had: he loved tall soldiers, and would pay any price to get a Grenadier over six feet high into his famous regiment. The years of his reign were chiefly spent in drilling

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and recruiting his army, and under his eye it became, without anyone knowing it, by far the finest in Europe.

**Prince Frederick.**—His son, the Crown Prince, seemed to inherit few of his father's tastes. As a child he was drilled as soon as he could walk, was made major in the Potsdam Guards when he was fifteen, and colonel three years later. But he hated the parade ground and preferred to spend his time in playing the flute and making French verses. This state of things was intolerable to his stern old father who treated him so harshly, even beating him unmercifully when he was grown up, that the young man resolved to escape from Prussia altogether. He arranged with a friend his plan of flight, but all was discovered on the morning of the day, and a terrible scene followed. The Crown Prince was thrown into prison, and, half-starved and ill-treated, fainted with horror as he saw his friend executed outside his window. He himself was condemned to death, and the tragedy of Alexis of Russia might have been repeated, had not the kings of Europe intervened and begged that his life might be spared.

After this terrible affair he seems to have submitted to his father and so succeeded quietly to the throne in 1740.

From what had been known of the Crown Prince Frederick during the days of his retirement in his palace at Renisberg, he was judged to be a somewhat careless and easy-going prince, fond of music and French verses and of the French philosopher Voltaire, whose writings were now coming into fashion. Men thought that a kind of Golden Age of peace and quietness was coming upon Prussia when they found their king disbanding his father's tall Grenadiers, distributing cheap corn, and abolishing torture from the courts. Remembering the rough despotism of Frederick William, they greeted with cheers a sovereign, who, when he saw the people craning their necks to look at a caricature of him upon the wall, ordered that it should be put in a better position for them to see.

But they quickly found that the aim of Frederick was not domestic peace but military glory.

**Conquest of Silesia.**—At the death of Charles VI., Emperor of Germany and Austria, his daughter Maria Theresa inherited his dominion over Austria, Hungary, and Bohemia by an arrangement called the Pragmatic Sanction, which all the powers of Europe had sworn to respect. The times were bad for a woman's rule, for the European kingdoms seemed infected with the lust of

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Louis XIV. for gaining extra territory, and Frederick was no exception to the rule. Without even declaring war, he marched into the rich province of Silesia, on which the House of Brandenburg had a very ancient claim, and seized upon Breslau, the capital of the province. It was the depth of winter; no invasion was expected, and the "royal robber" was suffered to annex the province almost without opposition. Almost at the same time the Elector Charles of Bavaria laid claim to another part of the Austrian dominions. He was helped by the French, to whose advantage it was that the power of the House of Austria should be broken up, and was crowned king of Bohemia at Prague in 1741.

The beautiful young queen, helpless and weak, fled into Hungary, where the inhabitants received her with enthusiasm. Holding up her young babe, she gazed at them, speechless with tears, but the Hungarians cried, "We will fight for our king, Maria Theresa," and with their aid and that of England, who now came to her assistance, she was able to keep her position in Hungary. Peace, however, had to be made with Prussia, at the expense of the loss of Silesia, "the richest jewel," as she called it, "of her crown."

1742.—The Elector of Bavaria, aided by the French, had now made himself Emperor of Germany. But the combined forces of Austria and England were strong enough to drive the French from Bohemia and a complete victory was won over them at Dettingen, in 1743, the last European battle in which an English king—in this case George II.—took part. This did not content Maria Theresa. She hated Frederick of Prussia with a bitter hatred and had never forgiven his robbery of Silesia. In 1744 she found herself in arms against France and Prussia, and determined to obtain the title of Emperor of Germany for her husband, Francis. Fighting went on for two years, without anything decisive coming to pass, save that Frederick's army began to win the wonder and admiration of Europe for the speed and agility of its manœuvres. "Some countries," it was said, "have a longer sword than Prussia, but none can unsheathe it so soon."

1748.—Finally by the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, Frederick was allowed to keep Silesia, and he acknowledged the husband of Maria Theresa as Emperor of Germany.

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**The Seven Years' War, 1756.**—So far Frederick had only been, as it were, sharpening his tools. It was during the Seven Years' War that Prussia came forward as one of the great Powers of Europe. A strong coalition was being formed against him in the days before the war broke out.

Maria Theresa was still determined to win back Silesia. Poland, Saxony and Russia resented the near neighbourhood of such a growing power, and the Empress of the latter country was full of resentment at some rude remarks that Frederick had made about her. In France he is said to have offended Madame de Pompadour, the lady who ruled the will of the weak Louis XV. Sweden threw in her lot with these great powers, and Frederick found himself opposed by six kingdoms at once. England alone came to his help, but it was Prussia who struck the first blow. Great as the odds seemed against him, he yet possessed many striking advantages. He had a magnificent army, his subjects were brave and intensely loyal, and his treasury was full. He therefore invaded Saxony, and within a short time made himself master of that country. But the next year turned out badly for Prussia. He gained the battle of Prague, but lost a great part of his army, and in the next engagement was completely defeated. Tears rolled down his cheeks as the remains of his favourite regiment filed past him. The death of his mother, the only person he seems to have loved, weighed heavily on his mind. A French army entered Germany and Frederick, haggard and miserable, saw nothing but ruin in front of him. A French, Swedish and Russian army attacked his dominions on all sides, and the king, determined not to be taken alive, carried a little phial of poison with him wherever he went.

Most men would have thrown up the unequal struggle, but this never seems to have entered his mind.

**Battle of Rossbach, 1757.**—In the November of this ill-fated year, the Prussian army faced the French and Austrian forces in the open field at Rossbach, not far from Lützen. For two long months Frederick had awaited the French soldiers, who, like Fabius of old, had tried to wear out his strength and patience by hiding among the Thuringian hills. Here, by his marvellous skill as a general, Frederick won a most brilliant victory over an army more than three times as large as his own, and so retrieved his fallen fortunes. Among the French stores the Prussians

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found such things as parrots, hair-oil and perfumery, which were greatly jeered at by the stalwart Grenadiers.

**Battle of Louthen, 1757.**—Much encouraged by this victory Frederick made a hurried march back to Silesia, whose capital, Breslau, had fallen into the hands of the Austrians. He was urged not to attack with so small an army. "I will attack them if they stand upon the Breslau steeples," he replied, and forthwith prepared for the fight.

Calling together a little band of fifty men as his body-guard he said to them, "I shall expose myself much to-day; you are not to leave me for an instant; if I fall, cover me quickly with a mantle, place me in a waggon and tell the fact to no one. The battle cannot be avoided and must be won." A glorious victory followed. Silesia was reconquered, and England and Prussia united in singing the praises of the great king.

**Battle of Zorndorf, 1758.**—Early in the next year a third brilliant victory was won over the Russian army at Zorndorf. Frederick was now considered invincible. He had conquered three great armies within a year, and that when his cause seemed hopelessly lost. The eyes of the world looked upon him in admiration as the finest leader of modern days. But reverses were at hand. A crushing defeat at Kunersdorf by the Austrians and Russians reduced Frederick to momentary despair (1759). "Is there no bullet that can reach me?" he exclaimed as he tried to stem the flood of retreat.

**Minden, 1759.**—But, in the meantime, Prince Ferdinand of Brunswick, with his Hanoverian and English army had conquered the French at Minden in North-West Germany, and the fortunes of the allies began to rise only to be crushed again within the two next years by a series of defeats, in the midst of which the English forces were drawn off, owing to the resignation of Pitt, the great English War Minister. But in these dark days light was close at hand. The Empress of Russia, Frederick's enemy, died, and her nephew Peter, having a strong admiration and affection for the Prussian king, gave up the Prussian prisoners, dressed himself in Prussian uniform and wore the eagle upon his breast. Instead of carrying on the war he thus became the friend and ally of Frederick the Great. France had long wished to end the war which she had been carrying on with England both in

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America and India, to her own great loss. Maria Theresa, left without allies, was compelled to sign a peace at Hubertsburg, by which her hated enemy had Silesia secured to him (1763).

**Effect of the War.**—Thus ended the Seven Years' War—a war which began with the ambition of a king and ended in his glory. But it took more than another seven years to restore prosperity to the ruined land and the starving people. Yet it was done at length, and Prussia, although she had nominally only gained the province of Silesia, steadily progressed in power and strength till she stood forth as one of the foremost kingdoms of Europe.

**Partition of Poland, 1772.**—But though Frederick may be forgiven for an ambition which ended in the ultimate welfare of his kingdom, we cannot overlook the part he played in the Partition of Poland, "the greatest political crime of the age" as it has been well called.

On the death of the King of Poland, and in the midst of the confusion as to the succession which followed, the Tsarina of Russia, the close friend and ally of Frederick, managed to gradually extend her control over the whole country. Some of the inhabitants, alarmed at her encroaching authority, rose up to free their country, whereupon both Russia and Prussia poured their armies upon her. Turkey came forward as the ally of Poland, and Austria was about to do the same when the base proposal was made that a share of the kingdom should be hers if she held back. Maria Theresa indignantly refused, but her power was gone. Her people accepted the offer, and the unhappy country was divided between Russia, Prussia and Austria.

**League of Princes, 1785.**—The last days of Frederick the Great were occupied in worthier deeds. One of these was to prepare the way for the union of Germany by making a League whereby the interests of all the princes of the petty states of Germany were bound together.

The avowed aim of this "Fürstenbund" was to ally their powers against Austria, but it contained the germ of the unity of Germany, a unity to be accomplished in future days by the great Bismarck.

Frederick died in 1786, leaving behind him a name more honoured as that of a general than that of a man. For his cruelty and selfishness increased with years; he quarrelled even



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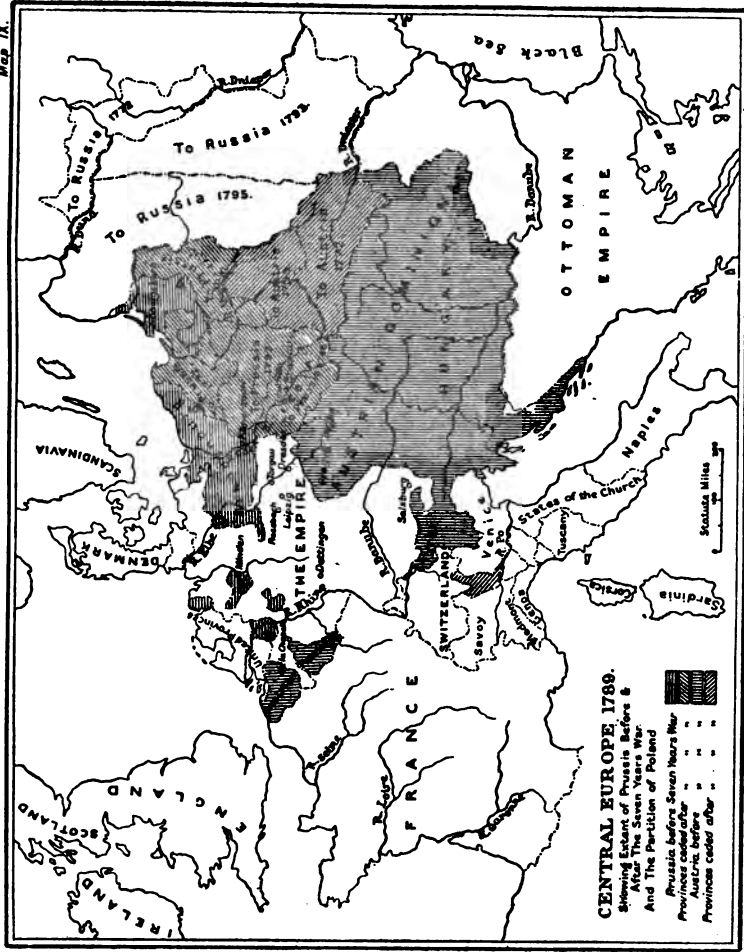
with his admired friend Voltaire, because the latter would not endure his despotic favour. He cared only for himself and his own designs, and yet was in many respects an excellent king. Prussia owes to him, at anyrate, the beginning of her greatness, and Europe learnt, within the short space of seven years, to look upon the new and unknown kingdom by the Baltic shore with deep respect.

### SUMMARY.—CHAPTER XL.

- I. *History of Prussia.*  
The Teutonic knights. First King of Prussia, 1700.  
Reign of Frederick William.  
Early days of Frederick the Great.  
Character of Frederick.
- II. *The Conquest of Silesia.*  
Maria Theresa and the Pragmatic Sanction.  
Robbery of Silesia. Claims of Charles of Bavaria.  
England aids the helpless queen.  
Battle of Dettingen, 1743.  
Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, 1748. Frederick keeps Silesia.
- III. *The Seven Years' War.*  
Austria, Russia, France, Poland, Saxony and Sweden ally against Prussia and England.  
Defeats of Frederick. Battle of *Kolin*, 1757.  
Attacked on all sides.  
Three great victories—*Rosbach* over the French, *Leuthen* over Austrians, *Zorndorf* over Russians.  
Defeat at *Künersdorf*, 1759. English win *Minden*.  
Russia becomes ally of Prussia. Peace of Hubertsburg, 1763.
- IV. *The Partition of Poland, 1772.*  
Russia, Prussia and Austria divide the land.  
Last days of Frederick. The "Fürstenbund."

### QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER XL.

- A 1. What was the cause of the Seven Years' War?  
2. Give the names and results of *four* of the most important battles.
  - B 1. Briefly discuss the circumstances that led to the Seven Years' War.  
2. Analyse the character of Frederick the Great, and trace any influences of his early training.
- Read.*—Macaulay's Essay, "Frederick the Great."  
"With Frederick the Great" (Henty).



## CHAPTER XLI

## THE RISE AND FALL OF POLAND

1578-1794

We must now take a brief glimpse at the most striking points in the history of Poland, that unfortunate kingdom which, as we have seen, was divided up among different kingdoms at the instigation of Frederick the Great.

**Borislav the Brave, 992-1026.**—The Duchy of Poland was first made into a kingdom by Otho III., Emperor of Germany, who in the end of the tenth century visited Borislav the Brave, and was received by him with such royal hospitality that in return he was accorded freedom from paying tribute to Germany, and became Poland's first king. The succession to the throne was never made hereditary in Poland, and hence arose many of her troubles. For the right of election was in the hands of the nobles, who were split up into a number of powerful factions, which kept the country in a constant state of disruption.

**Henry of Valois.**—Occasionally, too, a most unsuitable sovereign was chosen, as in the case of Henry of Valois in 1572, brother of the French king. When the Polish nobles came to Paris to offer him the crown, the French looked with astonishment at the long procession with its shaven heads, Oriental robes, fur caps and jewelled scimitars, and regarded them as outside the bounds of the civilised world. They soon proved too turbulent subjects for the weak hands of the French prince, who, on the death of his brother, was only too willing to escape back to France, leaving Poland to look after herself.

**Reign of Stephen Batory, 1578-1586.**—It was in the reign of Stephen Batory, Prince of Transylvania, his successor, that Poland became the greatest power of Eastern Europe. In those days her boundaries were marked by Russia on the east, Austria on the west, the Baltic on the north, and the Black Sea on the south.

The vigorous rule of this renowned soldier was directed chiefly to check the power of Russia, which, under Ivan the Terrible, was beginning to encroach upon Polish soil. In order to strengthen the

kingdom he organised the wild robber bands who called themselves Cossacks, and who had been a danger to their country in former years, into six regiments of one thousand men each, who proved a most valuable guard upon the frontier. He also kept a firm hold over internal affairs, and under him Poland lived through her golden age.

**John Sobieski, 1674-1696.**—After his death, the nobles regained the chief power, and the country was once more rent into many factions. It took no prominent place in European affairs till the reign of John Sobieski in 1674. "Let a Pole rule over Poland!" the nobles had cried at his election, and their choice proved a wise one.

**Invasion of Turks, 1682.**—In 1682 the Turks, under Ibrahim, surnamed "Shaitan" or "The Devil," invaded Austria. Enormous preparations had been made for this event, and the march from Belgrade to Vienna was a series of massacres, plunders and incendiarisms.

The Emperor Leopold fled promptly at their approach, and was followed by all the wealthy people in Vienna. But the rest fought bravely for their city; both women and children helped to barricade the walls, and the priests armed themselves like soldiers. In vain they waited for help from the Imperial army. The villages around became smoking heaps of ruins, and before their walls stretched, as far as the eye could reach, a vast horde of men, tents, luggage and camels belonging to the crescent-shaped camps of the Turks.

Despair was in the hearts of the inhabitants when Sobieski set out from Cracow, and with his small but perfectly-drilled army, drove the Turks from the walls of the city.

"Save me if you can!" cried the Turkish vizier to the general of his own army, who could but answer, "We know well the King of Poland; it is impossible to resist him. Let us rather think how we can escape from the place."

So the Turks were driven out, and Vienna welcomed John Sobieski, as though indeed he were a man sent from Heaven to their relief.

After the days of John Sobieski, Poland began fast to decline. We have seen how the partition of her territory came about in the days of Frederick the Great. Only one more name stands among her annals of glory, that of the patriot Kosciusko.

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**Kosciusko, 1794.**—In 1794, this brave man, who had learnt what independence meant when fighting in America to free the United States from England's rule, determined to do what he could for the liberty of his country.

Rebelling against foreign rule, he attacked Warsaw, with the utmost courage and valour. But Poland was too weak to support him with sufficient troops. He was defeated, wounded and taken prisoner, spending some long years in a Russian prison. Released at length, he went again to the United States for some years; but he never forgot his country, and returning, strove to stir up the French to the help of Poland. France received him with enthusiasm, saying, "Liberty is secured, Kosciusko is in Europe," but gave him no practical aid. He was forced to retire disheartened to the free mountains of Switzerland, where he died in 1817.

After his days Poland ceases to have a history. One more attempt at freedom in 1830 led to her incorporation with Russia, and as a kingdom, she no longer existed.

### SUMMARY.—CHAPTER XLI.

- I. *Past History of Poland.*  
Borislav the Brave (992) becomes the first King of Poland by the will of Otho III. of Germany.  
Factions of the Nobles. Henry of Valois.
- II. *Reign of Stephen Batory (1578-1586).*  
Period of Poland's greatest power.  
Bounded by Russia on east, Austria on west, Baltic on north, Black Sea on south.  
The organisation of the Cossacks.
- III. *John Sobieski (1674-1696).*  
Invasion of Austria by Turks, 1682.  
Siege of Vienna. Sobieski rescues the city.
- IV. *Partition of Poland by Frederick the Great.*  
Revolt of Kosciusko, 1794.  
Its failure.  
Poland annexed by Russia.

### QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER XLI.

- A 1. What work for Poland was done by Stephen Batory, John Sobieski, and Kosciusko?
2. Draw a map of Poland as it existed in 1580, showing its boundaries.
- B 1. Why has the Partition of Poland been called a "great political crime?"
2. Sketch the history of Poland.

## EPOCH VII

## THE REVOLUTION AND THE EMPIRE

## CHAPTER XLII

## THE BEGINNING OF THE REVOLUTION IN FRANCE

1789-1794

**Peace of Paris, 1763.**

**T**HE kingdom of France was brought, by the Seven Years' War, into an even worse condition than that of Germany. During all this time she had been at war with the English in India and America as well as on the Continent, and when the Peace of Paris ended the war, she had lost nearly all her Indian and American possessions, besides those in Germany and Italy. She had been ruled for many years by a weak and useless king, and her people now looked with suspicion and dislike at the young king Louis XVI., and his wife Marie Antoinette, the beautiful daughter of that Maria Theresa in whose cause the Seven Years' War had come about.

**Condition of the People.**—We saw how, even during the great reign of Louis XIV., the people of France were suffering much from the long continued war, which was a constant drain upon the purses and resources of the poor. The Seven Years' War was upon them before they had any chance of recovery, and now in 1774, when Louis XVI. began to reign, they were in a pitiable condition. The treasury was empty, and must be refilled; the pockets of the poor were empty, those of the rich were closed. In vain did the young king, together with Necker, his finance minister, strive to think out plans by which money might be obtained without undue oppression. They all came to nothing.

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Necker resigned his post, and the king and queen, hopeless of ever getting the tangled skeins into order, gave up the task, and appeared to the people to mock their misery by setting up a locksmith's shop and a model dairy, where they amused themselves by playing mechanic and milkmaid together. Meantime the iniquitous tax known as the *Gabelle* was reducing the poor to desperation. This was a tax on salt, laid upon the people in such a way that while everyone over seven years of age was obliged to buy so much salt a year, he might only use it for cooking purposes; if used for anything else, such as salting fish or pork, he had to buy an additional supply; much was therefore wasted. So many people tried to evade this tax that thousands were sent every year to the galleys in consequence, and the *Gabelle* was looked upon throughout all France as an instrument of torture and oppression.

The state of the land was like that of Italy in the days of the Gracchi. Wealth and luxury of every kind was lavished in the towns; the country people starved upon their barren acres. The ground was left uncultivated, for it was not worth while to keep a little farm when the neighbouring Seigneur claimed almost the whole of its produce as rent. A bad harvest at once reduced the people to starvation. No happiness or brightness existed in the peasant's life, and all the nobles cared for was how they might squeeze enough money from them to pay for their silken couches and dainty foods. Exceptions there were, of course, but these were powerless. The peasants had ceased to trust them; to their minds an "aristocrat" was necessarily an oppressor; and so the crash came.

**The States-General—The National Assembly.**—In 1789, the States-General which, you remember, had not been summoned to sit in France since the reign of Louis XIII. were called together by the advice of Necker. The nobles refused to meet the Commons on equal terms, whereupon the latter, roused and inflamed by the speeches of one Mirabeau, formed themselves in a body known as The National Assembly, which soon became the acting Parliament of the nation. For the nobles, weakened by the despotic rule of Louis XIV., and enervated by luxury and wealth, had no strength to oppose them, and so the representatives of the "canaille" as they were scornfully termed by the aristocratic party, obtained the chief power.

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The first sign of open revolt against the king's authority came from the National Assembly. Louis had appeared before it himself, and had offered to make many new laws which would be of advantage to the people. They listened with suspicion and distrust. The king grew angry, and left the Assembly, ordering them to disperse at once. They took no notice and continued their heated discussions, replying to the messages sent to them, that they would not go unless they were driven out by the bayonet.

Determined to crush their opposition, the king sent for troops to surround Paris, and dismissed Necker, who begged him not to inflame the people by this means. The French Guards, the royal regiment, promptly joined the side of the mob, and on a certain Monday the shops were shut, and soldiers and people marched through the streets of Paris wearing the tricoloured cockade, in open defiance of authority.

**Beginning of the Revolution.**—The next day the temper of the mob had been roused to fever point by this taste of power. Arming themselves with muskets from the Hotel des Invalides, which the governor made no attempt to hold, they proceeded to the Bastille, the ancient prison of Paris. Meanwhile, tidings of what was going on reached the king. He would not realise the danger; "They are in revolt!" he exclaimed, but one standing near replied with truth, "Sire, this is no revolt: this is a Revolution."

**Taking of the Bastille.**—For four hours the governor and his troops endeavoured to hold the Bastille, but in vain. The mob was now infuriated. The prison was the king's, and it must fall. It did so at length; the few prisoners it contained were set free, and the governor and his men were torn to pieces or hung from lamp-posts by the angry people.

When he heard this, the king gave way.

He appeared again before the Assembly, promised to dismiss his foreign army, and recalled Necker. The people cheered him as they saw the tricolour in his hat, and for a time things quieted down. It was but a lull in the storm. Paris, once stirred up, was not soon to settle down again. The scarcity of bread kept the people in a state of discontent; the women of the lower classes did even more than the men to stir up resentment against authority.

One day as a band of women waited as usual before a baker's



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shop for the loaf that was so hard to get, news reached them of a great banquet given by the king and queen at Versailles to a new troop of soldiers who had lately come there. Both king and queen had been present, and Marie Antoinette had given away white cockades, the royal badge, to the men amidst much applause. The contrast between the gay scene and the streets of starving Paris was too much. The women seized a drum, and began to parade the streets, screaming "Bread! Bread!" Proceeding to the Town Hall, they broke into it, seized all the weapons they could find and marched in a great unruly mob to Versailles. There they broke into the hall of the Assembly, where the king spoke to them kindly, promised them bread, and tried to persuade them to go back to Paris. But they would not go. Many of them tried to break into the palace, for their rage against the poor young queen, who was reported to have asked, "Why don't they eat cakes if they have no bread?" was intense. The troops kept them out of the palace, however, and they contented themselves with stopping the business of the Assembly by shouting, whenever any one rose to speak,

"Bread! Not so many long speeches."

This event brought home their real danger to the royal pair. The queen, who though she was flighty and inexperienced, had her mother's courage and daring, wished Louis to disperse the people by force, but this he was most unwilling to attempt.

The mob slept that night wherever they could, and next day made another attempt to break into the queen's apartments. This they were prevented from doing, but the king and queen both came out upon the balcony to speak to them, and promised they would do all they could. They then insisted that he should return to Paris and fulfil his promises there, and this they agreed to do. So the royal carriage set out, with the king, queen and their two children, escorted by this mad array of women, screaming out, "Here is the baker, the baker's wife, and the baker's boy."

They entered the palace of the Tuileries, which they were to leave only once again before the end. For the people had conquered, and the "ancien régime" in France was over.

### SUMMARY.—CHAPTER XLII.

- I. *The Effects of the Seven Years' War in France.*  
Peace of Paris, 1763. Loss of Indian and American colonies.
- II. *Condition of the People.*  
The *Gabelle*. State of the land. Bad conditions of life.

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### III. *The States-General summoned.*

Origin of National Assembly. Revolt against the king.

### IV. *Beginning of Revolution.*

Taking of Bastille. The Versailles banquet.

The women's riot.

Return of Royal Family to Paris.

### QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER XLII.

*A* 1. What were the main causes of the French Revolution?

2. Describe the revolutionary events of 1789.

*B* 1. Describe the state of France in the year 1789.

2. Trace the causes which led to the Revolution from the reign of Louis XIV.

*Read.*—"Mademoiselle Mathilde" (H. Kingsley).

## CHAPTER XLIII

### THE REIGN OF TERROR

1789-1794

The king and queen of France were now practically prisoners in the Tuileries. The king found the traces of his carriage cut when he wished to go to the country to hunt, the queen was insulted by the passers-by, and soon never left the palace. The chief power was in the hands of the Assembly, and disorder reigned in Paris, where the clergy were turned out of their livings, the nobles forced to leave their homes, and no title but "citizen" was permitted to be held.

**Foreign Interference—Flight of the King.**—At first a certain amount of sympathy was felt in other countries for the people's attempt to free themselves from tyranny, especially in America, which had lately declared her independence of the mother country, and in England where a certain party was in favour of anything that helped on the cause of Liberty. But Austria, Prussia, and Spain, in dread that the revolution would spread over their borders, prepared to attack France. It was then arranged that Louis should escape to Varennes, join the allied armies and make war upon his people. With the greatest reluctance the king agreed to this plan. Disguised as a German man-servant of a German baroness, re-

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presented by the governess of the royal children, with the queen dressed as waiting-maid, they left Paris for Germany in a lumbering family coach. The escape was soon discovered, and spies hastened after him, but the king was not noticed until he had almost reached the town where the troops were in waiting to conduct him to Germany. But as they waited at a certain village, the post-master, an ardent Revolutionist, recognised the king from his likeness on the stamped paper money, and hurrying off to Varennes reached it before the lumbering coach and blocked up the bridge over which it must pass.

Almost in the presence of the troops who awaited them outside the village, the unfortunate king and queen were hurried into the house of the mayor and next morning escorted back to Paris, where they were now openly regarded as prisoners. The attempt had failed, and henceforth the sovereign was in the power of the mob.

**Uproar in the Tuilleries.**—A refusal of Louis to accede to a law directed against the priests caused another demonstration of the people's feeling towards the royal family. Thousands marched to the Tuilleries, and having planted there a poplar—called by them the Tree of Liberty—they proceeded to make a rush upon the palace. Louis, although he probably thought the end had come, received them with dignified calmness, and keeping only a table between himself and the mob, asked them what they wanted. They yelled at him that they required the downfall of the priests. He replied that it was neither the way nor the time to obtain what they wanted. The courageous front of the king seemed to intimidate the mob, which gradually slunk away.

But worse was at hand. Hearing that the allied armies were preparing to attack them, the Parisians sent for six hundred men from Marseilles, who entered the city singing the Marseillaise—the song of the Revolution. With their aid another attack upon the palace was planned in order to frighten the king into submissive resignation. Hearing of this, Louis ordered the Swiss Guard, his most faithful troop, to be posted outside the palace and awaited events with calmness. But disquieting messages arrived. One warned him that the Swiss Guards could not be trusted, another that his only chance was to flee to the hall of the National Assembly. After much indecision the king agreed to do this, and walked thither with his wife and children, putting himself

and them under the protection of the Assembly. But unfortunately he sent no message to the soldiers, who, when the palace was attacked, defended it with such zeal that scarcely one was left alive. For they were helpless against the superior numbers of the mob, and though they momentarily expected help, no help arrived. So they died, loyal to the last, and in the ensuing years were commemorated at Lucerne in Switzerland by the image of a dead lion set up by their admiring countrymen.

For the next six months Louis and his family were imprisoned in a building called the Temple. Meantime the anarchy that had reigned in Paris for the last year had resulted in the prisons of Paris, the most important of which were La Force and L'Abbaye, being thronged with aristocrats, men, women, and children, together with priests, servants, and all who would not take part in the excesses of the Revolutionists.

**The September Massacres.**—Danton, who now was at the head of the Assembly, set about a rumour that the army of Brunswick was advancing upon Paris and that the prisoners were all involved in a plot to escape and attack the Parisians. Bands of assassins were easily hired, and at his instigation, the prisons were surrounded, a kind of mock trial was held, and if the prisoner were convicted of even a distant sympathy with the aristocratic party, he was turned out, nominally to go to the other prison, but, actually to be massacred in cold blood by the people awaiting them in the streets. Over a thousand people perished in this terrible way, and the mob of Paris, having tasted blood, thirsted like a tiger, for more.

**The Republic.**—About this time the monarchy of France came to an end and a Republic was set up in its stead, ruled by the National Convention, the most important members of which were Danton, Marat, and Robespierre.

**Danton.**—Danton was a savage, sensual man, whose aim was to carve out a new Constitution for France from the hapless bodies of the members of the old régime, and to make France victorious in her struggle with Europe.

**Marat.**—Marat, whose appearance and character were those of a criminal lunatic, was a journalist who cared little for the welfare of France, but simply desired to gratify an insane lust of killing,

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which was so far satisfied that he was able to say in the latter part of his life that he had caused the fall of 170,000 heads. Robespierre we shall hear of later.

**Murder of the King.**—The question of what was to be done with the king was now before the National Convention.

The matter was discussed, and many accusations were made against Louis, which, however, were answered satisfactorily by his lawyer. But he was not to escape. A long discussion on the subject was at length ended by Danton, who, rising in his place said in his harsh and strident tones: "Let us cast before Europe, as the gauntlet of battle, the head of a king."

**January 21, 1793.**—The following day the king took a tender leave of his wife and children, promising to see them again next morning. But when day broke, he would not rouse their agony of grief afresh, and set off alone in the cart of execution through the streets of the city he had once ruled. Ascending the scaffold with a firm and dignified step, he gazed at the people whom he had done his best to rule wisely, if not strongly, and began to speak. "Frenchmen," he said, "I die innocent. I pardon my enemies. I pray that France——" Here the beating of drums interrupted him and drowned his words. "Son of Saint Louis, ascend to Heaven!" said the priest who accompanied him, in his ear. He bowed his royal head to the blood-stained guillotine, and so died.

**October 1793.**—"We always loved the people!" Thus ran the pathetic little speech of the widowed queen when she heard of the accusations showered upon her husband and herself. Nine months after his death, she too was brought up for trial. She had already suffered a worse penalty than death. Separated from her beloved children, uncertain as to their fate, enclosed in a small dark damp cell, she must have felt it in many ways a relief to be dragged forth into the light of day, even though only to be drawn in a cart to the place of execution and guillotined like her husband. The mob looked on at the pale, white-haired woman who had once been the merry girlish queen, in silence, but no voice was raised to pity her. Her unhappy children, a boy of nine and a girl of fourteen, were kept closely in prison. The little Louis, shut up alone in a dismal room, and kept in neither health nor cleanliness, became dull and apathetic, and

almost idiotic. Some answers obtained from him unawares to questions about his mother had been used against her, and when he knew this, he declared he would never speak again. He pined away, and died through ill-usage and neglect in 1795.

**The Jacobins and Girondists.**—After the death of the king, the Revolutionists began to quarrel among themselves. Two parties now came to the front; the Jacobins, who were the most violent reactionaries, and wished to upset all law and order from the land and kill everybody who was not a Revolutionist; and the Girondists who were more moderate in their desires, and desired to set up a Republic upon the model of that of Rome. The president of the Jacobin club or party was Marat, who now set up a court called the Revolutionary Tribunal before which any one who was suspected of being opposed to the Republic was tried and in nearly every case condemned to death. Many of the Girondists themselves perished by this means, and the guillotine was busy at work from morning till night, till executions became so common that the women, standing with their knitting at the corners of the streets, scarcely troubled to do more than count the number of the victims. But the trial of the Girondists was the actual means of ridding France of the monster Marat. One of their friends was a girl named Charlotte Corday. She thought in her ignorance that if Marat were dead, France would be at peace again. She went to Paris, and pretending that she brought with her a list of conspirators, obtained admission to the room where Marat, sitting in his covered bath, was accustomed to do business. As she handed him the list, she stabbed him in the heart, so that he died at once.

At her trial Charlotte declared that she had but killed one fierce monster that her country might have peace, but her courage, youth and beauty did not save her and she was guillotined.

**Robespierre.**—The most remarkable of all the Revolutionists now ruled over Paris. Robespierre—the “Sea-green Incorruptible” as Carlyle calls him—was a pale-faced, nervous, sour-tempered man, who in his younger days had thrown up his post as judge in one of the provinces rather than condemn a man to death. He voted for the execution of the king, but he did not lust for blood as did Marat and Danton: yet his rule in Paris became veritably a Reign of Terror. Narrow-mindedness,

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pedantry, egotism and obstinate ferocity brought about more deaths than did the open brutality of Marat or Danton. This man now sat upon the Committee of Public Safety with Danton, and in the course of a few weeks so many thousands of innocent men, women and even children perished on the scaffold that Danton, having now accomplished his aim and established a strong government by means of the guillotine, wished to relax the terror. Upon this Robespierre turned against him in such a way that he soon stood at the bar of his own Tribunal and was sentenced to death. "Thou wilt show my head to the people, for it is worth showing," were the last words spoken to the executioner by this strange, savage man, whose ideals for France were yet better and more practical than those of the man who sat alone in his place.

**The Reign of Terror.**—Day after day the executions went on under the ruthless eye of Robespierre who now reigned supreme for the space of three months. Eighty at least perished each day, and when the prisons began to empty they were replenished by men and women sent in from the neighbouring provincial towns. For all France, and not Paris alone, was busy with the guillotine or other forms of death. At Nantes the wives and babies of the aristocrats were sent in a great boat into the middle of the Loire, when the bottom was opened and they were left to drown; and a band of five hundred children, brought out to be shot, were killed by the soldiers at the point of the bayonet when they broke from their lines and begged for life at the knees of their executioners. At Paris a new guillotine had to be invented which cut off four heads at one blow, and even the Paris mob sickened at the sight of so much blood. Suspicion now began to be aroused that the all-powerful Robespierre was aiming at the position formerly held by royalty.

**Fall of Robespierre.**—For a time Robespierre retired into private life. He grew every day more timid, and would only go out after dusk with his landlady's daughter and his great hound for fear of assassination. At length he suddenly reappeared in the Convention, and began to make a powerful speech on his own behalf, in which he hinted at the deserved death of many unnamed persons present. Herein he made his great mistake; for no one felt his head was safe, and all began to join together in cries of "Down with the tyrant."

"I demand to be heard!" cried Robespierre, but in the momentary lull that followed, he faltered and hesitated. "The blood of Danton chokes you!" cried one of the members, and a scene of wild confusion followed, in the midst of which he escaped to the Hôtel de Ville. They followed thither to arrest him, but the cowardly creature who had condemned so many noble lives could not face the guillotine and tried to shoot himself, but only succeeded in smashing his lower jaw. He was hurried to prison where he spent a night of agony, and next day was driven to execution. As he lay in the tumbrel, tied down because of his struggles, with his jaw partly bound with the blood-stained rag, the people shouted with joy and cried out that his death gladdened their very hearts. So fitly perished one of the most loathsome characters of the Revolution—a man without a redeeming point in his character.

"Friends, rejoice! Robespierre is no more. The tigers are dead," cried the mob that day. So completely had the tide of feeling turned.

The Revolution was over. All that was needed was a strong hand to bring back order to the blood-stained city. For about four years Paris struggled on in vain attempts to get back to a state of law and government, before the right man appeared who was to bring back glory to France, and change the current of the world's history.

## SUMMARY.—CHAPTER XLIII.

- I. *Foreign Powers come to help of France.*  
King and queen imprisoned in the Tuileries. Attempted flight fails.  
Uproar at the Tuileries. The "Marseillaise." Massacre of Swiss Guards. King puts himself in hands of the National Assembly.  
The September Massacre.
- II. *The Republic.*  
Danton. Marat. Murder of the king and queen, 1793.  
Death of the Dauphin, 1795.
- III. *The Jacobins and Girondists.*  
The Revolutionary Tribunal.  
Girondists and Jacobins. Marat killed by Charlotte Corday.
- IV. *Robespierre.*  
The Reign of Terror. Committee of Public Safety. Death of Danton.  
The Terror in other parts of France.  
The Fall of Robespierre. His death.  
State of France.



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### QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER XLIII.

- A* 1. Name the three Revolutionary leaders and say what you know about one of them.  
2. Describe the events which happened from the imprisonment in the Tuileries to the death of Louis XVI.
- B* 1. Compare the characters of Marat, Danton and Robespierre.  
2. Compare the stages of the Revolution in 1793 and in 1794.
- Read.*—"Tale of Two Cities" (C. Dickens).  
"French Revolution" (Carlyle).  
"Life of Robespierre" (G. H. Lewes).  
"Life of Danton" (H. Belloc).

## CHAPTER XLIV

### THE RISE OF NAPOLEON BUONAPARTE

1796-1808

There now steps forward upon the stage of European history a man before whose Empire the greatness of Charlemagne fades away. So completely was Europe dominated by his power that during the next twenty years the struggle that was being waged was practically between Napoleon Buonaparte and England, the only country which held her own against him.

This war we may look at in six different periods, according to the stage upon which each part of it was fought.

**First Period, 1792-1795.**—In 1792, the French Convention had published a Decree, offering help to all those nations who desired to overthrow their kings. This naturally led to a declaration of war against Revolutionary France by England and the European powers, who seem to have thought it would be a comparatively easy matter to stamp out the flame of insurrection. They soon found out their mistake. The French frontiers were triumphantly secured by the Revolutionary army, and some of the allies were forced to withdraw. The English were driven from the town of Toulon, during this period, mainly by the soldierly management of a young Corsican captain, Napoleon Buonaparte, serving in the French army, who so distinguished himself both then and afterwards in Paris, where he was chosen to reduce the insurgent part of the population to order by means of his troops.

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Paris was now left in a more peaceful condition and was governed during the next four years by a Directory composed of five men, one of whom was changed every year. This plan did not work well, but meantime the man who was to be her ruler was advancing to power by means of the army.

**Second Period, 1795-1797—Italy and Austria.**—In 1795 a new confederacy was formed against France by Austria and England, who were helped by a small naval fleet from Russia.

The Revolutionary army was now no longer merely on the defensive. It was eager to carry the principles of the Revolution over the whole of the civilised world, and determined to do this by declaring war against all governments and liberty to all people.

The chief seat of the war was in Italy, where Buonaparte—the “Little Corporal” as his adoring soldiers loved to call him on account of his small stature, was chosen general of the army. Here the Sardinians and Austrians were in arms against the French; but Napoleon’s army was already beginning to feel its power, and before long the Austrians were driven from Italy. Liberty was now proclaimed to the Italians, who, however, failed to recognise the force of the word when they saw their treasures of art and stores of wealth carried off to France, and their country ruined by the pillage of the victorious troops.

**Campo Formio, 1797.**—Buonaparte next pursued the Austrians into their own dominions across the Alps; but both sides were exhausted by the struggle, and the Peace of Campo Formio was made, by which Flanders and Savoy were handed over to France, and Venice, her bitterest enemy, ceased to exist as an independent Republic. In that same year Spain and Holland joined the Republican forces, but their ships were defeated at Camperdown by Duncan, in a manner which showed that if she could not yet attempt much by land, England was supreme at sea.

**Third Period, 1797-1799—Napoleon in the East—Battle of the Pyramids.**—The ambition of Napoleon Buonaparte, which had hitherto been only partially satisfied with the glory obtained from the war in Italy, now turned to wider fields. The time was not yet come to make himself master in Paris—he said himself at this time that “the pear was not ripe.” The distant East appealed to his love of adventure and of hard fighting. By her protectorate over Egypt, England held the road to India. To

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subdue this country would strike a double blow to the enemies of France. Sailing thither, Napoleon's iron will forced his men, weary and dispirited by the climate of the East, to face the fierce Turks and Arabs so that they won the great battle of the Pyramids. "Think," cried their leader just before the conflict, as he pointed to the vast tombs of bygone kings, "that forty generations look down from these heights!"

**Battle of the Nile, 1798.**—But while he conquered by land, the English fleet under Lord Nelson had come up with the French war-ships in Aboukir Bay. At the battle of the Nile which followed, the great French war-ship *L'Orient* was blown up and the English won a complete victory, almost destroying the French fleet. Without delay, Napoleon, hearing at the same time that things in Paris were in the utmost confusion, hurried back to France, overturned the Directory and made himself head of the Republic, under the title of First Consul.

**Fourth Period, 1801-1808—Napoleon conquers Europe.**—Napoleon now determined to crush the Continental powers arrayed against him. England, since her strength lay on the sea, where his was weakest, must be left for the present. Sending one army into Germany, Buonaparte led the other across the Alps, conquering every difficulty like Hannibal of old, against the Austrians, who had regained much of their territory in Italy.

**Marengo and Hohenlinden, 1800—Treaty of Luneville, 1801.**—The year 1800 saw a double victory for the French. The Austrian army was completely defeated at Marengo by Napoleon and at Hohenlinden in Germany by Moreau. Peace was made, and France gained Belgium and the left bank of the Rhine, as well as the power of making a great part of Northern Italy into separate Republics.

Returning to Paris, Napoleon set to work to restore many of the former conditions of the monarchy. An attempt to blow him up as he drove to the theatre enabled him to transport all the more violent of the Jacobite party; and he then proceeded to restore the Roman Catholic religion, which the atheism of the Revolution had tried to abolish, and to recall as many as possible of the emigrant nobles to their own country. He then felt secure in taking a further step by making himself First Consul for life, and securing the succession to his own family. He had

married some years before, Joséphine, the widow of a noble victim of the guillotine, and though they had no children he was anxious not to let the reins slip from the hands of his own relations.

But some of the republicans looked upon these proceedings with suspicion. They did not see any marked difference between Napoleon's present position and that of a king. An insurrection was raised against him, headed by Moreau, the victor of Hohenlinden. The plot was revealed to Buonaparte, who determined to crush not only all those implicated in it, but those who might in the future cross his upward path. He therefore arrested the young Duc D'Enghien, prince of the House of Condé, and therefore a member of the late royal family, together with other high-born nobles. The young prince, who knew nothing of the charge brought against him, was taken out and shot after the merest pretence of a trial. It was Napoleon's first false step. No doubt he feared a revulsion of feeling which would end in the return to power of the late monarchy.

**Napoleon crowned Emperor, 1804.**—To prevent all danger of this he had himself crowned as Emperor in 1804 by the Pope himself. The Republic was at an end and France was in the hands of a military despotism, presided over by an absolute monarch. A little later he assumed the title of King of Italy.

**Attempted Invasion of England—Trafalgar.**—In that same year, Napoleon, having crushed the power of Austria and Italy, prepared a huge force wherewith to invade England, whom he rightly regarded as his most powerful opponent. So sure was he of success that he actually had medals struck commemorating his victory over England. But Nelson, that old sea-lion, was bestirring himself. The combined French and Spanish fleets which were to attack the English coasts were met by him in the Bay of Trafalgar, on the 21st of October 1805, when he totally annihilated the allied fleets.

**Austerlitz, 1805.**—The idea of invading England was at once abandoned, and Napoleon determined to strike at her allies, Russia, Austria, who had with some reluctance decided to face the Imperial Eagles once more, and Prussia. The army of the latter surrendered almost at once, and it was therefore to the united forces of Austria and Russia that Europe looked to drive

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the bold invader back. But by the masterly tactics of Napoleon the allies were induced to make a false move. "Before to-morrow night," exclaimed Napoleon confidently, "that army will be mine."

He was right. The allies were completely defeated, and Prussia promptly offered him her alliance. Peace was made with Austria by the Treaty of Presburg in terms by which that country was humbled to the dust. The power of Napoleon was supreme upon the Continent.

Prussia, however, although subdued, was always ready to begin to fight again.

**Battle of Jena, 1806.**—But the battle of Jena crushed her completely, and Napoleon, appropriating to himself the sword of Frederick the Great, took up his quarters in the palace at Berlin.

**Russia—Peace of Tilsit—Battle of Copenhagen, 1807.**—All the nations of Europe, save England and Russia, were now at the feet of the great Emperor of the French. Russia met him on the field of battle at Friedland, which, though not so decided as most of Napoleon's victories had been, was so far in favour of the French that the Russians were anxious to make peace. The two Emperors met upon a raft in the middle of the river Niemen, and there concluded the Peace of Tilsit, by which opposition from the East of Europe was for the time removed. He also attempted to injure England by forbidding these "vassal states" of Europe to trade with her (Berlin Decrees); but this was defeated by similar measures on the part of England, which prevented any country from trading with France.

For a time there came a lull in the series of victories. The conqueror of Europe paused to take breath and survey his position.

### SUMMARY.—CHAPTER XLIV.

- I. *First Period of Napoleon's Power, 1793-1795. France.*  
War declared against the Revolutionists by Europe.  
Buonaparte drives the English from Toulon.  
France governed by the Directory.
- II. *Second Period, 1795-1797. Italy and Austria.*  
Buonaparte drives the Austrians from Italy.  
Treaty of Campo Formio. France gains Flanders and Savoy.
- III. *Third Period, 1797-1799. Napoleon in the East.*  
Battle of the Pyramids.  
French fleet crushed by Nelson at Battle of the Nile, 1798.

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## IV. *Fourth Period, 1800-1808. Conquest of Europe.*

Austrian armies defeated at *Marengo* and *Hohenlinden*, 1800.

Treaty of *Luneville*. France takes Belgium and left bank of Rhine.

*In Paris*. Roman Catholicism restored. Napoleon made First Consul. Death of Duc D'Enghien. Napoleon crowned Emperor, 1804.

Attempted Invasion of England. Battle of *Trafalgar*, 1805.

*Austria* and *Russia* crushed at *Austerlitz*, 1805.

*Prussia* at *Jena*, 1806. Peace with *Russia* made at *Tilsit*.

## QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER XLIV.

- A 1. What did France gain by the Treaties of Campo Formio, Luneville and Tilsit, and with whom were they made?
- 2. Give the names of the four great battles by which Napoleon became supreme in Europe during his fourth period of warfare.
- B 1. Trace the rise of Napoleon's power from 1793-1799.
- 2. By what steps did Napoleon make himself supreme in Europe (1800-1808)?

## CHAPTER XLV

### THE FALL OF NAPOLEON BUONAPARTE

1808-1815

**Fifth Period, 1808-1814.**—The aim of Napoleon was now two-fold. By his reforms in every department of France he raised the standard of education, art, manufactures and commerce, but his ultimate ideal was to convert the whole country into a nation of soldiers.

His second aim was to enforce his hold upon Continental affairs by gaining the mastery of the whole European coast line. His brother Louis had been placed by him upon the throne of Holland, Joseph upon that of Naples: he now turned his attention to Spain.

**Spanish War, 1808-1814—Battle of Corunna.**—Pretending to ally himself with Spain against Portugal, the Emperor soon managed to dethrone the Spanish king and to place the crown upon the head of his unwilling brother Joseph, King of Naples. But England would not see her old enemy thus handed over to the Empire of France. Wellesley, who afterwards became the



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famous Duke of Wellington, landed in Spain. Sir John Moore secured the northern sea-coast by his brilliant victory at Corunna (1809), and Wellesley began his series of conquests in the Peninsula.

Napoleon's luck now seemed to have changed. The Austrians were once more in the field against him, and managed to win a great victory which, with the English in Spain, the Tyrols in revolt, and all Germany rising against him, placed him in a most perilous position.

**Battle of Wagram, 1809.**—At Wagram the decisive battle was fought. At one moment it seemed as though Napoleon's fall was accomplished. The cry of "All is lost!" resounded along the French lines, when Napoleon gave the signal for a general charge, and the Austrians were driven from the field. Soon after this victory the ambition of Napoleon led him to a step which condemned him as a man of honour. For purely political reasons he divorced his childless wife, the Empress Joséphine, who had always justly earned his love and respect, and married Marie Louise, the daughter of the Emperor of Austria. A son was born to him, and he tried to forget the broken-hearted wife who had thus been sacrificed to his ambitious wish for an heir to the vast Empire he was building up. From this period dates the decline of Napoleon's power.

**Peninsular War.**—Meantime the great armies of the Emperor were over-running Spain and keeping Wellington fully engaged in holding them at bay. While the Peninsular War was in full swing, Napoleon, regardless of the fact that three hundred thousand men were already fighting for him in Spain, determined to attack Russia, the one country in Europe which had not been invaded or conquered by him.

**The Expedition to Russia—Moscow, 1812.**—All the forces of the countries subdued by him were marshalled together, and the vast armament moved to the east, crossed the River Niemen and, driving the Russian army before them, halted at Wilna. Finding that the Russians had laid the country waste, Napoleon marched upon Moscow, the old capital of the country. Upon their way they fell in with the Russians at Borodino, where a battle was fought so bloody that more men perished on both sides than have been numbered in any other conflict. At length it ended, and the



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Imperial troops hurried forward to seize Moscow. To their astonishment they found the town deserted. Scarcely, however, had they established themselves there when a fire broke out in various parts of the city. In vain they tried to extinguish it. Again and again it re-appeared, for the Russians had left some of their citizens hidden in the cellars, and had bidden them burn the enemies out. At length the city was almost entirely destroyed and Napoleon was forced to make his way back through Russia with his shrunken and dispirited forces.

The retreat from Moscow is one of the most awful scenes in history. It took place in the depth of a bitter winter, through a desert, empty of food. The French soldiers died by thousands of cold and hunger, and their whitening bones for years marked the path of the retreat. The Cossacks attacked them in their weakness, and, in a terrible conflict upon a partially frozen river, many thousand men were drowned.

"Never," said Napoleon at the start, "was the success of an expedition more certain."

Never, says history, was failure more complete. At length Napoleon determined to leave the army to take its chance, and himself escaped in disguise and returned to Paris. Undismayed by the loss of nearly all his army, together with their cannon, baggage and standards, he proceeded to summon all the youths of France to be drilled under his banner, under the name of "conscripts."

Meantime his enemies were quick to seize this moment of weakness. Prussia and Austria once more allied themselves against him, Germany kept his veteran troops employed, Spain was still the theatre upon which the Peninsular War was being played out to a disastrous close.

**Battle of Leipsic, 1814.**—On the 18th October 1814, Napoleon found himself face to face with the allied armies at Leipsic. For four days the battle raged, watched by the inhabitants of the town from their steeples and towers. Overpowered at length, the Emperor was forced to retreat across the Rhine, while the three monarchs of Russia, Prussia and Austria were able to meet and congratulate one another in triumph in the market-square of the city. The Low Countries and Rhine Provinces at once revolted, and Italy fell once more under the rule of Austria.

The remainder of the conquered army returned to France,

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whither the allied troops soon followed them. But Napoleon, hard pressed on every side, would hear no word of making peace. Saying farewell to the wife and child he was never to see again, he left Paris and tried to intercept the army of the allies on its way thither. But they eluded him and marched upon the capital. Without the presence of the Emperor all was confusion there. Joseph Buonaparte, who had been left in command, and Marie Louise and her child left the city, and Paris promptly surrendered. The fickle mob were weary of the iron rule of Napoleon, and welcomed the Emperor of Russia and the King of Prussia with shouts of joy.

All was now lost. It was impossible to regain Paris, and there was nothing left for Buonaparte but to resign the Imperial Crown, and submit to the will of his conquerors. The French throne was at once given to Louis, brother of the murdered king, under the title of Louis XVIII., and Napoleon was banished to the island of Elba for his life. Assembling his faithful soldiers of the Old Guard, the fallen Emperor bade them a sad farewell. All Europe had risen up against him, he told them, and France, the France he had made so great, had deserted him in his hour of weakness. "Be faithful," he ended, "to the new sovereign your country has chosen. Do not lament my fate. I shall be happy while I know that you are so." Then kissing the French flag, with the eagle blazoned upon it, amidst the tears of his soldiers, he was driven away to the coast.

**Sixth Period, 1814-1815—The Great Hundred Days.**—But the caged eagle could not bear the seclusion of the rocky island so near, yet so far from his beloved France. While Louis XVIII. was passing troubled days in Paris, and England was rejoicing over the fall of the tyrant, the news of Napoleon's escape from Elba fell like a thunderbolt upon Europe. Landing at Cannes, Buonaparte found a regiment of his old soldiers waiting joyfully to receive him. Troop after troop joined him on his march to Paris. Louis XVIII. fled, and an enthusiastic crowd welcomed back the ex-Emperor to the Tuileries. For one hundred days this curious reign lasted. Then came the final crash.

**Waterloo, 1815.**—Never had the genius of Napoleon blazed so brightly as during the days when he was preparing for the final conflict with united Europe. His plan was to crush the English and Prussian armies under Wellington and Blucher before

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the Austrians and Russians could arrive upon the scene, and for this purpose he massed his troops upon the Belgian frontier to keep the allies out of France.

On June 18, after a wet night, the armies faced one another on the plain of Waterloo. The British force, not yet reinforced by the Prussians, looked small and insignificant. The ground was slippery and bad for fighting. "At last," exclaimed Napoleon as he watched the arrangements for the coming conflict, "I hold these English in my hand!"

From eleven till four the battle raged between the French and English. Then the arrival of the long delayed Prussian army turned the attention of a portion of the French troops. Their right wing wavered, and Napoleon gave the word for the final rush upon the British centre to be made by the Old Guard. This was completely overthrown, each man dying as he stood, their leaders exclaiming to the cries of "Surrender!" "The Old Guard dies but never surrenders."

Exclaiming "All is lost" Napoleon rode hard to Paris, where he again resigned his crown, and despairing of escape, gave himself up to the British Government. Within a few weeks the man who had once been conqueror of Europe was standing upon the quarter-deck of a British ship, taking his last look at the continent which he had kept in a perpetual state of warfare for twenty years. All was over now, and in the distant island of S. Helena the great Napoleon fretted away the last days of his eventful life. He died in 1821, and was buried there under a willow tree. But in the days that followed France forgave his ambition and remembered only his greatness as a soldier and a ruler of men; and his bones were brought back to rest in his beloved Paris under a magnificent tomb.

*"The world was at peace."*

### SUMMARY.—CHAPTER XLV.

#### I. *Fifth Period, 1808-1815. Success and failure.*

Peninsular War, 1808-1814. Battle of Corunna.

English ally themselves with Spain.

Austria once more in arms. *Battle of Wagram*, 1809, won by Napoleon. Marriage with Marie Louise of Austria.

#### II. *The Moscow Expedition, 1812.*

Burning of Moscow. Disastrous retreat. Distress of the army. Conscription introduced into France.

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### III. *Europe rises against Buonaparte.*

Prussia, Austria, Germany, Spain and Russia rise against the Emperor.  
Battle of Leipsic won by the allies. Paris surrenders.  
Banishment to Elba.

### IV. *The Great Hundred Days, 1814-1815.*

Escape from Elba. Return to Paris.

Battle of Waterloo, June 18, 1815.

Banishment and death of Napoleon at S. Helena, 1821.

### QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER XLV.

*A* 1. Against whom, and with what result, were these battles fought :—  
Wagram, Corunna, Leipsic, Waterloo?

2. Give an account of the Expedition to Moscow.

*B* 1. Trace the fall of Napoleon from his marriage with Marie Louise of Austria to the battle of Waterloo.

2. Discuss the character of Napoleon, and state what he accomplished for France.

*Read.*—"Uncle Bernac" (Conan Doyle).

"Picciola" (Saintine).

"Through Russian Snows" (Henty).

## EPOCH VIII

### THE RISE OF MODERN EUROPE

#### CHAPTER XLVI

#### THE GROWTH OF GERMANY

1815-1870

**T**HE stirring events of the twenty years that preceded the battle of Waterloo make the history of the years that followed comparatively tame and uneventful.

But it was during these fifty years that Germany rose from her vague and unsettled state to be one of the greatest powers of Europe.

**Condition of Germany, 1815.**—After the Congress of Vienna, held to redistribute the lands conquered by Napoleon, all that remained of the once great Empire of Germany was a loose Confederation of independent states, amongst which two stood prominently forward. One of these, Prussia, owed her position to the genius of Frederick the Great. The other, Austria, had proved her mettle during the struggle with Napoleon.

The burning question now arose as to which of these two important states was to take the foremost position.

Prussia had her past history and a well-trained army in her favour, but was ruled by the weak and undecided Frederick William III.

**Metternich.**—Austria, nominally under allegiance to the Emperor Francis, was in reality ruled by the great Metternich, whose iron will had, by the year 1819, made him practically supreme in Europe. For although he failed, as we shall see, to

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realise that he, belonging as he did to a period of rapid growth and expansion, needed to grow and expand in mind along with it, yet in the early years of the century, when men were timid and uncertain as to their real powers, he was the man to prop up and nerve their weak hands, by bringing about the "Holy Alliance" between Russia, Prussia, and Austria, by which peace between the greater powers was ensured to Europe for a while.

**Austria makes her power felt (a) in Prussia.**—The chief aim of Metternich was naturally to keep down the power of his great rival Prussia. Any attempt of the latter to attach to herself the independent states was guarded against by a policy of fostering internal discontent in Germany, and playing off the smaller states against the greater. He was much helped in this policy by the conduct of the German students, who, posing as the pioneers of Reform, were wont to keep the towns in a perpetual state of terror. At length the poet Kotzebue, whose politics were hated by the mob, was murdered by a German student. His companions hailed the latter as a patriot and martyr, and so roused up the Prussian Government that a fever of terror and anxiety to oppress this spirit of revolt ran high at Berlin. Metternich seized this opportunity to bring about an agreement that Prussia should in future allow Austria to have a voice in her internal affairs.

**(b) in Italy, 1821—Battle of Novara.**—In 1821 a Revolution in Italy gave Metternich his second opportunity. Crossing the River Po, the Austrian army defeated that of the insurgents at Novara, and once again Italy fell into the iron grip of her old masters.

But Austria herself was outgrowing the old-fashioned leading strings in which she had so long been kept.

**Kossuth.**—Hungary, whose people, crushed and terrorised, still kept alive in secret their ancient spirit of liberty, were aroused to make a bid for independence under the patriot Kossuth. While this plan was brewing, however, forces were at work all over Europe, which ended in the triumph of the party which for some time past had been striving against the iron hand of Metternich.

In 1848 the second French Revolution awoke the spirit of revolt in Spain, Ireland, Italy, Germany, and finally in Austria herself. Kossuth seized his chance, and by his fiery speeches roused the Hungarians to throw off the galling chain of absolute

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government. Their energy spread to Vienna. A band of students and workmen forced their way into the "Diet" or Parliament; Kossuth's speech was read, and a riot began which ended in a revolution. At first Metternich refused to believe that such a thing could happen in his own capital.

**Fall of Metternich.**—But when the mob thundered at the door of his private room, the old man realised at length that his day—the day of oppression and absolutism was gone for ever; and, having hurriedly resigned his post, he escaped from Vienna and passed the rest of his days in exile (1848).

**Battle of Novara, 1849.**—The effect of his fall in Austria was to ensure the success of both Hungary and Bohemia in their bid for an independent Constitution. At the same time the states of Italy rose up against their conquerors, and Venice succeeded in driving them out, and once again declared for the Republic of S. Mark. The army of Piedmont, fighting bravely to the last in spite of overwhelming odds, met with a crushing defeat at Novara. The triumph of Austria seemed complete, but the seeds were already sown of freedom for Italy in the days to come.

**Germany.**—During all these years the affairs of Germany were in a state of chaos. One great party was determined to uphold the independence of the individual states, if need be, with their lives; another was bent upon establishing the Unity of the Empire. The eyes of both these parties were fixed upon Prussia with alternate hope and dread. At one time the fear of Austria drove them to combine, unwillingly enough, in offering the Imperial crown to King Frederick William. But he, realising that his own weakness and indecision was unfit to cope with the Austrian war which would surely follow, refused a crown "which," he said, "had been picked out of the mud."

The ten years which followed the Revolutions of 1848 were full of depression and trouble for Prussia. Then Frederick William became hopelessly insane, and his brother William was made regent, and in 1861 succeeded him as King of Prussia. He was a marked contrast to his fanciful, arbitrary, undecided brother. A practical, brave, honest German soldier himself, he at once set to work to improve the state of the kingdom by strict army reforms; and in order to carry out his policy of government, summoned Bismarck to his side as Prime Minister. This great

## GROWTH OF GERMANY 1815-1871 A.D. 235

statesman was a man of blunt, outspoken manners and of iron will. To him is due the unification of Germany completed in 1871 by the crowning of the Prussian king as German Emperor in the great hall of Versailles.

Let us see how this was brought about.

**Prussia and Austria.**—Bismarck quickly realised that the great obstacle to Prussian progress was the jealousy and opposition of Austria. By some means, he decided, Austria must be got rid of altogether.

She had already withdrawn herself from the German Parliament, and was at this time in an exhausted condition, harassed by revolutions in Hungary and Italy (1864). Bismarck chose this opportunity to put forward a claim on Denmark for the states of Schleswig-Holstein; and Austria must either join Prussia or run the risk of the war being turned upon herself. She reluctantly chose the former, but she was only deferring the day of reckoning. Schleswig-Holstein was ceded to the two Powers, after a brief struggle, but it soon became evident that Bismarck's intention was to seize upon the whole territory for Prussia, leaving Austria out in the cold.

This was not to be borne. It was suggested that a third alternative be submitted, and that the newly ceded provinces should be made an independent state like those of the rest of Germany. All the German states, fearful of what Prussia intended by her high-handed policy, were in favour of this latter idea. Even the Prussians failed to take Bismarck's side, and the public feeling against him ran extremely strong. But he, knowing what the end would be, stood unmoved. Schleswig-Holstein must be completely incorporated with Prussia. The result was all he could wish. In 1866 war was declared.

**The Prusso-Austrian War, 1866—Battle of Sadowa.**—The decisive battle of this war was fought at Sadowa, in Bohemia. The Austrian army out-numbered that of Prussia, a great part of whose armament, led by the Crown Prince, was some hours march from the field.

But the Bavarians failed to support their country as they might have done, and, at the crisis of the battle, the arrival of the Crown Prince caused a decided victory for Prussia. "Your Majesty," said the Prussian general to King William, "has won not only the battle but the whole campaign."



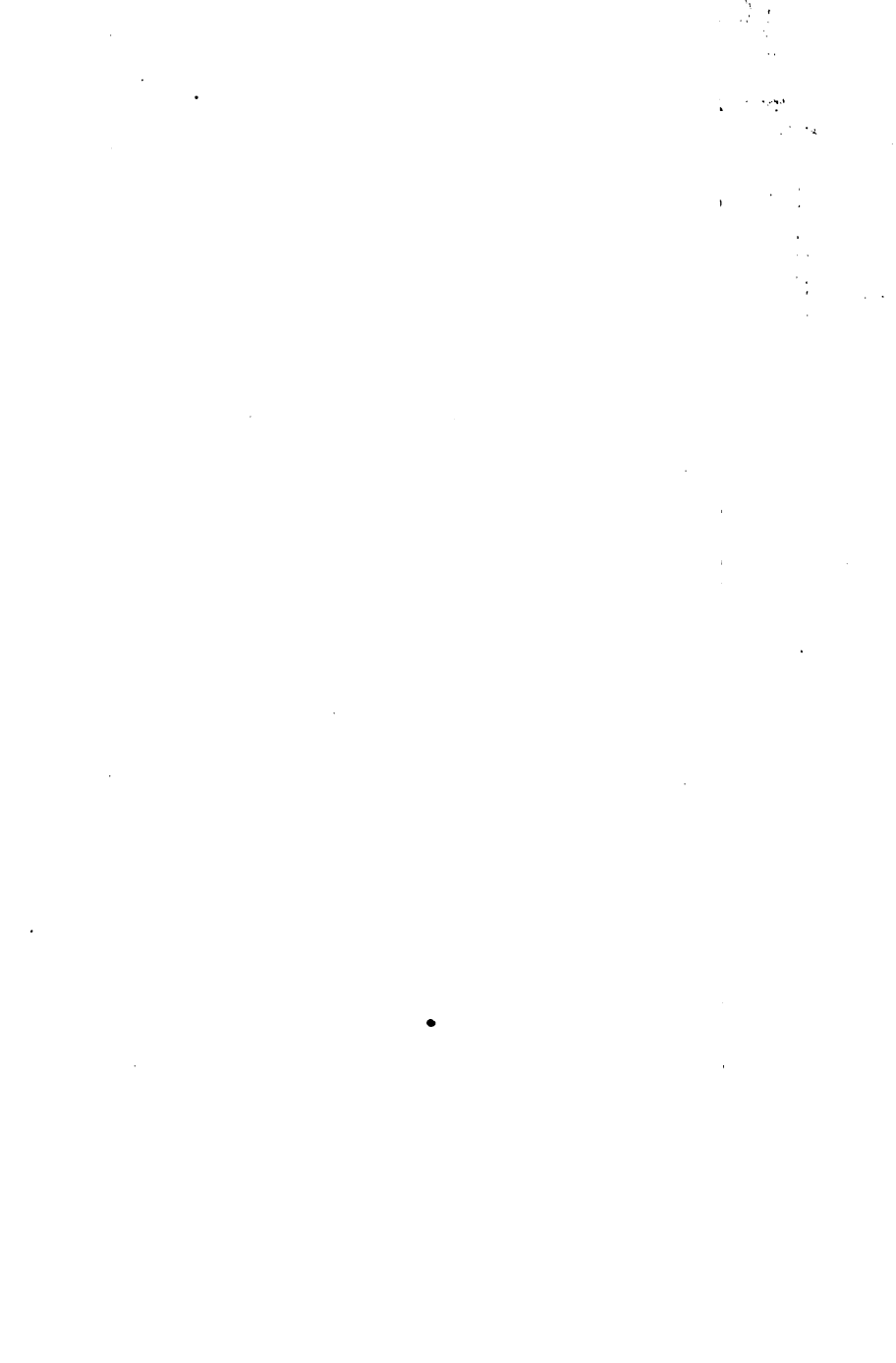
The Prussian army now wished to enter Vienna in triumph, but the wisdom of Bismarck prevented it. He realised that another, and more important war, with his neighbour France, across the Rhine, was at hand, and he wished to secure the neutrality, if not the alliance of Austria in that event. So moderate terms were made at the Peace of Prague, the chief point being that Austria was permanently excluded from Germany.

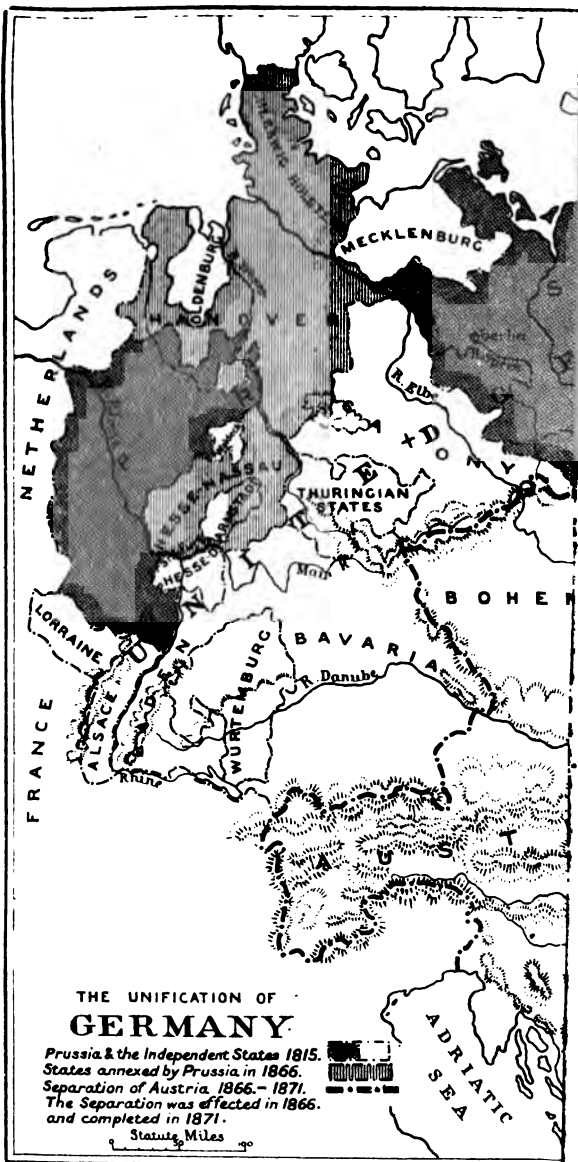
This brief war, which had swept one rival from the path of Prussia, had the curious effect of drawing Austria and Hungary together again. The need of unity, if the separated Empire was to endure, was clear enough; and Hungary, while keeping her independent constitution, willingly acknowledged the Austrian Emperor as her supreme head.

**The Franco-German War, 1870.**—From this time, Bismarck, who had suddenly become the hero of the nation, aimed openly at uniting all Germany under one Emperor, the King of Prussia. He knew very well that France would never submit to this sudden increase of strength on the part of her near neighbour without a struggle, but for that struggle he was ripe. For he saw in it the great means of drawing the separate threads of the independent states into one hand. From the Northern states he had little to fear; he could afford to disregard them. But the powerful states of the South had always hated Prussia bitterly and seemed likely to seize any opportunity of revolt. But at this juncture, the Emperor Napoleon III. took the earliest opportunity of aggression by demanding, under threat of war, certain German states upon the left bank of the Rhine. The prospect of cession to France quickly brought the states to their senses. One after another hurried to place themselves under the protection of Prussia, and within a short time the whole of Germany was placed under the Prussian system of military control. In all but name the Unification of Germany was effected.

**State of France, 1830-1870.**—To understand the position of affairs just before the Franco-German War, we must very briefly glance back at the history of France during the last forty years.

**Second French Revolution, 1848.**—Louis XVIII. was succeeded by his brother Charles X. under whose rule the republican and revolutionary spirit grew strong again in France.





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Charles was forced to abdicate, and his cousin, Louis-Philippe, took his place. During his reign, Louis Napoleon, nephew of the late Emperor, visited France and tried to stir up an insurrection against the Government. At first he met with little success, and was committed to a State prison; but a few years later he escaped under the disguise of a workman, and managed to stir up the Paris mob, so that in 1848 a second Revolution broke out. All Paris rose in arms. The city was barricaded, and the king had barely time to flee for his life. Once more a Republic was formed, of which Louis Napoleon was chosen President. This opened the way for the scheme laid years before by this man, who possessed his uncle's ambition without his strength of character.

By the aid of the army he had himself declared Emperor of the French, as Napoleon III. For Napoleon II. had been the empty title borne by the young son of the great Emperor, who died when he was quite a lad, without having ever worn the Imperial Crown.

**The Franco-German War, 1870.**—Napoleon soon recognised that, while his Empire rested solely upon his army, so near a neighbour as Germany must not be allowed, by combination of her various states, to become too strong. He was therefore anxious to declare the war for which Bismarck was quietly thirsting. King William, however, hesitated to take the final step; and it was while the Minister sat, moody and disheartened with the Prussian General Moltke, in his room in Berlin, that a telegram arrived from the king describing the result of his interview with the French ambassador. Bismarck, on reading the message, determined to take a decided step. There was in the despatch a distinct sign of hesitancy and reluctance to declare war. Turning to Moltke, Bismarck asked him if he were ready to fight, and on being told "yes," the Chancellor ran his pencil through certain lines of the telegram, so that, without altering or adding a word, it appeared a decisive appeal to arms. This was then published, and war was declared.

**Battle of Wörth, 1870.**—A terribly bloody contest between France and Germany followed. The French armies invaded South Germany, only to retreat in confusion after the battle of Wörth. The decisive conflict of the first part of the war was fought at Sedan, where the whole French army was forced to lay down its arms. Napoleon, who had fought with desperate

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bravery and vainly sought for death upon the battlefield, surrendered his sword to the King of Prussia. On hearing this, his subjects deposed him from the throne and France became for the third time a Republic.

When Napoleon gave up his sword, he declared that it was his person, not France that he surrendered. The French replied to Prussian overtures "we will not yield an inch of French soil nor a stone of French fortresses." The war recommenced, and was ended nearly two months later by the terrible defeat at Metz, when once again the French army was forced to capitulate (1870). In February 1871, after the Siege of Paris, the whole of France lay prostrate at the feet of her conqueror. Terms of peace were now dictated by the latter. France was to pay a huge war indemnity and to give up to Germany the province of Alsace-Lorraine.

But most important of all was the step which Bismarck could now take, without fear of opposition, of placing the Imperial Crown upon the head of the Prussian king. For the war, as he foresaw, had bound the different states closely to the central power, and all looked on with complacency, when, in the great hall of Versailles, the conqueror of France was hailed as Emperor of United Germany by the representative of the rulers of the various states.

The German troops were then withdrawn from Paris, which, left once more to the will of the mob, was now subjected to civil war for six weeks. The city was again bombarded, and before peace could be restored, half the great buildings of the city were burnt to the ground. From this time France has remained a Republic.

Thus we have seen how Modern Germany, under the iron hand and far-sighted policy of Bismarck, rose from a position of weakness and disunion, to take a foremost position among the great Powers of Europe.

### SUMMARY.—CHAPTER XLVI.

- I. *Condition of Germany in 1815.*  
Rivalry of Austria and Prussia.

- II. *Metternich.*

*His aim*—to weaken Prussia and prevent the unity of the German states. Murder of Kotzebue leads to insurrection in Berlin.

Austria interferes with Prussian affairs.

War with Italy. Battle of *Novara*, 1821, brings Italy under the rule of Austria.

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- III. *Fall of Metternich.*  
*Kossuth*, the patriot of Hungary.  
The second French Revolution helps on the spirit of revolt.  
Hungary declares her independence. Bohemia follows suit.  
Fall and exile of Metternich.
- IV. *Condition of Germany, 1848-1860.*  
Disunion of states. Weakness of King Frederick William.  
Accession of William, 1861. His character.
- V. *Bismarck.*  
Aim—to unify all Germany (a) by getting rid of Austrian opposition.  
(b) by uniting the German states by a common war against France.
- VI. *The Prusso-Austrian War, 1866.*  
*Cause.* Dispute concerning Schleswig-Holstein.  
Battle of *Sadowa* won by Prussia.  
Austria cut off from Germany.
- VII. *Franco-German War, 1870.*  
*Cause.* French fear of increased strength of Germany.  
Bismarck's wish to crush French opposition by a war undertaken by the United States.
- VIII. *State of France, 1830-1870.*  
*Review.* Accession of Louis Napoleon after the Second Revolution, 1848. Crowned Emperor as Napoleon III.
- IX. *Progress of the War.*  
Battles of Wörth, Sedan, Metz.  
The French completely defeated. Abdication of Napoleon.  
Siege of Paris. Treaty of Paris. Cession of Alsace-Lorraine to Germany.  
William of Prussia hailed as German Emperor at Versailles, 1871.

### QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER XLVI.

- A 1. What was the great work of Bismarck?  
By what two chief means did he accomplish it?
2. What do you know of Novara, Kossuth, Sedan, Kotzebue, the Second French Revolution?
- B 1. Compare and contrast the respective policies of Bismarck and Metternich.
2. Briefly review the steps by which the Unification of Modern Germany was accomplished.
- Read.—“*Léonie ; a Tale of the Siege of Paris*” (A. Lucas).  
“*Within Iron Walls*” (A. Lucas).  
“*German Home Life.*”

## CHAPTER XLVII

## THE UNION OF ITALY

1815-1860

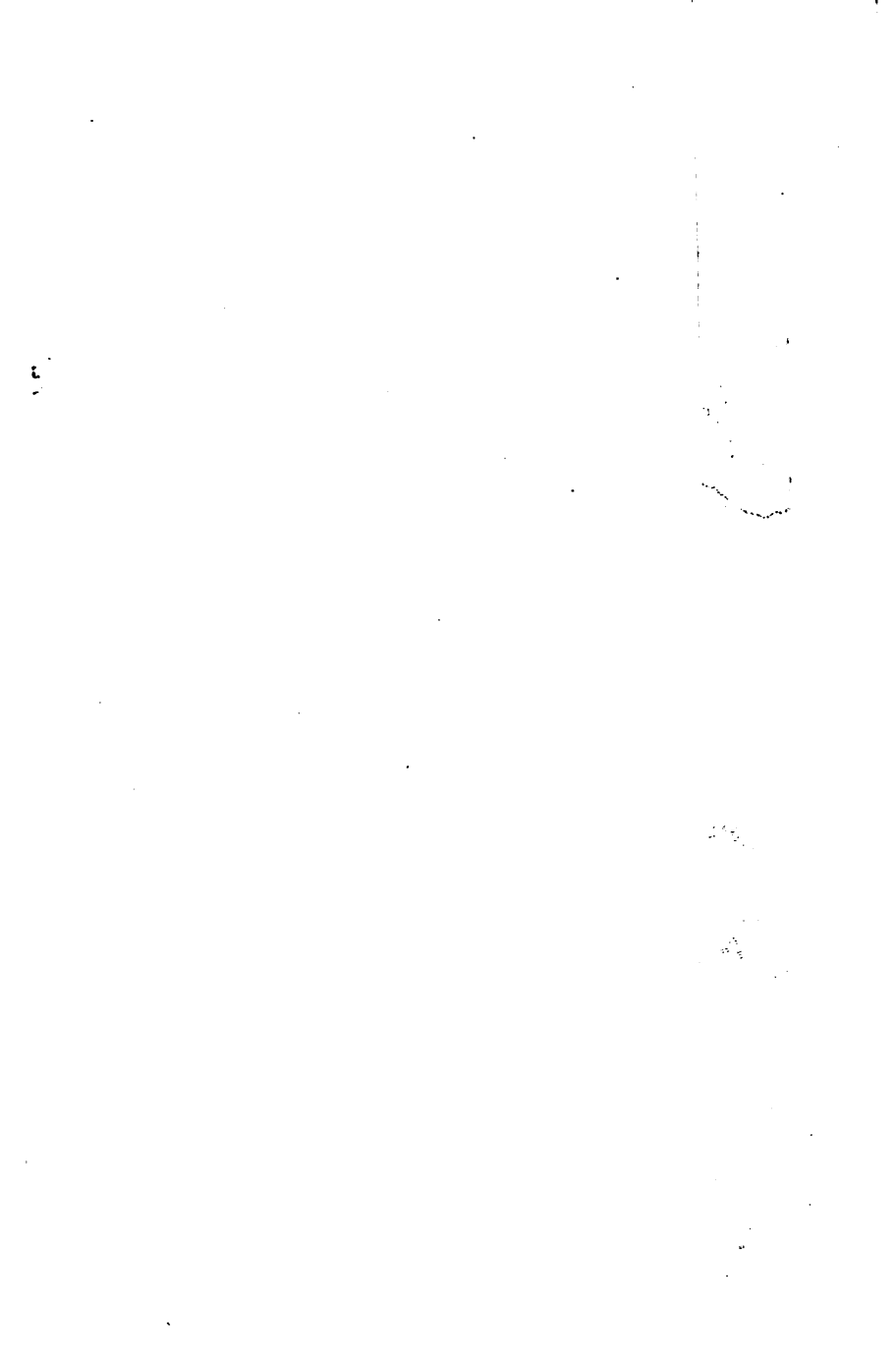
We have already seen that the chief principle of the Congress of Vienna, after the fall of Buonaparte, was to restore, as far as possible, the rulers and governments which had existed before the Great Revolution. Thus, while the important states of Lombardy, Venice, Parma and others were forced to submit once more to Austrian rule, the kingdom of Piedmont returned to its allegiance to the House of Savoy, of which King Victor Emanuel I. was the representative. This was the centre round which, in the years to come, the forces of Italy were to gather and which was to form the nucleus of unity for the "Mother of Nations," as Italy has well been called.

For thirty years after the Peace of Vienna, Italy lay helpless under the foot of Metternich. That statesman had shown his feeling towards the unfortunate country in his contemptuous statement, "Italy is only a geographical expression."

Piedmont, the States of the Church, Naples and Sicily, though nominally free from Austrian control, were powerless to act, and were, during most of this time ruled by powers far more tyrannical than those of Austria. But underneath this outward appearance of hopeless submission, the peninsula was full of seething life and activity. Secret societies spread through the land, bent upon obtaining freedom and independence. Every few years the result of these was seen in a brief outbreak against despotic rule. Naples' attempt to throw off the tyranny of the Bourbon king who ruled her was speedily crushed by Austria. The same fate overtook the Piedmontese, when they had partly succeeded in persuading Charles Albert, the successor of Victor Emanuel I., to rise for the liberty of Italy.

**Mazzini.**—It was the sad spectacle of the unsuccessful revolutionists of Piedmont fleeing from their country that first stirred the child-mind of Mazzini to consider these things.

Some years later he appears as the first notable patriot of







**Modern Italy**, having devoted his time from his student days to bring about a new era of freedom for his country by appealing to the people, rather than to the aristocracy, for support in revolution. Forming a society, known as "Young Italy," Mazzini made use of newspapers and orations to instruct and impress upon the people the necessity for banding themselves together if they wished to obtain liberty. Driven from Italy, he set up a printing-press in France and from there and afterwards from England, kept alive the spirit of revolt.

**Pius IX.**—The influence of Mazzini had done much. The fact that the new Pope, Pius IX., appeared to sympathise with the movement towards freedom did still more. Men's eyes began to turn with new hope to Piedmont, where the well-known hatred of Charles Albert for Austria marked him out as a possible leader. Sicily set the example by successfully forcing the Bourbon troops to leave the island; the kingdom of Naples was obliged to grant a Constitutional government in place of a despotism, and the enthusiasm of Italy rose high when the Pope did the same for the States of the Church.

All Italy, except the Austrian territory, was now well upon the way to freedom.

**Revolution of 1848.**—The news of the fall of Metternich gave the last touch to the Revolution against Austrian rule. The whole nation, for the first time, rose from Etna to the Alps, and at first seemed as though Austrian rule must be swept from the face of Italy. But unfortunately this did not last. Powers so unaccustomed to act together failed in the attempt. The Pope wavered and drew back when war was openly declared. The King of Naples recalled his troops. Jealousy of King Charles Albert prevented him from taking action.

**Novara, 1849.**—A year after the war commenced, the ill-fated Battle of Novara ended the last hopes of the Revolutionists. Amidst pouring rain the Austrian artillery dispersed the flying bands of Piedmontese, and their king, in the hope of obtaining easier terms of peace for his unfortunate people, abdicated in favour of his son, Victor Emanuel II., and betook himself into sad and voluntary exile.

The Austrians next proceeded to besiege Venice, which, under the pressure of war, famine, and plague, was forced to

capitulate and fell once more into the clutches of Austria, while Sicily fell again under the dominion of Naples.

**Piedmont and Count Cavour—Aim of Cavour.**—But in spite of this crushing defeat, Piedmont, under its new king, was by no means dead. Four years after the Revolution of 1848, that kingdom came again into prominence under the guidance of Count Cavour. He wisely began his policy of reform at home by strengthening the "kingdom of Sardinia," of which Piedmont formed the main part, by developing trade and industry, and bringing the whole country into a state of prosperity. His great aim, however, was to rally the Italian states round Piedmont, and to make his king the ruler of United Italy. His first idea was to accomplish this by the aid of France. An attack made upon the life of Napoleon III. by an Italian fanatic was turned by Cavour to his advantage. He managed to convince the Emperor that the only hope of ending the anarchist tendencies of "Young Italy" was to take away their grievances by restoring their rightful liberties, and in a secret meeting between the great minister and the French Emperor, Napoleon promised to act as the ally of Italy against Austria, on condition that the provinces of Savoy and Nice were handed over to him. A message received from Austria threatening war unless the Piedmontese troops were at once disbanded, formed the excuse for action, and the war broke out between Sardinia and France against Austria (1859). As Cavour, full of hope, exultantly cried: "The die is cast: we have made history."

**Result of the War.**—At first the French and Italian armies met with distinct success. Milan was taken by the allies, while in other parts of Italy the undisciplined but fiery troops led by Garibaldi, an enthusiastic patriot who had taken part in the revolution of 1848, carried all before them.

**Villafranca, 1859.**—But just when everything seemed most hopeful, a heavy blow fell upon the aspirations of Cavour. The Austrians managed to bribe Napoleon, never very anxious to carry on the war, with the offer of Lombardy. A treaty was signed at Villafranca, in which Victor Emanuel was not even consulted, and France withdrew basely from her Italian alliance. The blow crushed the King of Sardinia into compliance with the infamous terms, but Cavour was roused to fury and despair. He hotly counselled the king to

carry on the war alone, and when he could not obtain a hearing, threw up his post and retired from the conflict.

But his deep love for Italy prevailed over his natural disgust and dismay.

He began to recognise that much had already been done towards his end. The French Emperor had been induced by political motives to cede Lombardy to Piedmont, which had also succeeded in annexing the State of Parma; and thus the way was paved for the future unity of the various states. The links which bound Austria to Italy had been rudely shaken, and Cavour determined to make a fresh bid for the freedom of the land.

Once more the Italians rose to the attempt, and, united by their joint misfortunes, cried, "Italy will do her own work."

Strong measures had to be taken. All claims which France urged upon her were wiped out by the cession of Savoy and Nice; henceforth Italy owed her faithless ally no debt of gratitude, and Napoleon was obliged to acknowledge Victor Emanuel's right to the title of "King of Italy." The annexation and settlement of the troubled states of the South had next to be taken in hand. This was accomplished mainly by the energy and devotion of Garibaldi.

**Annexation of Sicily.**—With his thousand red-shirted followers, this stout-hearted patriot attacked Sicily, which was garrisoned strongly with Neapolitan troops. Within a month he had won the island, turned out the garrison, and was ready to march upon Naples (1860). Entering the city, he found the king had fled, and proceeded to make himself "dictator." Alarmed at his headlong onset, both the King of Sardinia and Cavour urged him to stay his hand, lest, by attempting too much, he lost all. But Garibaldi scornfully swept aside all such ideas. The idol of his followers, he probably knew the temper of the people better than did Cavour himself, and determined forthwith that nothing should prevent his march upon the Holy City.

The Pope had meantime applied to Austria for protection, and the arrival of Garibaldi would, in all probability, cause the outbreak of a fresh war with that country. So Cavour determined to despatch the army of Piedmont with all speed to Naples, and there to prevent the march of Garibaldi to Rome. This had been already hindered by the opposition of the Neapolitan troops encamped outside the city; but these, after severe fighting, were overcome by the patriots at the Battle of Volturno.

Meantime, upon his southward march, Cavour had decided to anticipate the inevitable conclusion, and to occupy the States of the Church with the army of Piedmont. These readily submitted to his authority, and were only bent upon resistance to the undisciplined troops of Garibaldi, who was now the chief obstacle to universal success. But all fear from this quarter vanished when the brave and soldierly Victor Emanuel entered Naples at the head of his troops; for Garibaldi at once laid aside all personal feeling, and was the first to salute him as King of Italy.

The conquest of Rome was yet to be accomplished. Garibaldi was anxious to begin the attack at once. Cavour still counselled patience. But the great Italian statesman, who had done so much for the making of his country, never saw her unity completed. Worn out with incessant labour, he died in 1861.

"Italy, as a nation, is a legacy, the life-work of Cavour. . . . Others have been devoted to the cause of national liberation; he knew how to bring it into the sphere of possibilities; he made it pure of any factious spirit; he kept it clear of reckless conspiracies; steered straight between revolution and reaction; and gave it an organised force, a flag, a government and foreign allies."

**Rome.**—In the year that followed, the "King of the Poor," as the people called Garibaldi, assembled his followers, and, raising the cry of "Rome or Death," determined to enter the Holy City as a conqueror or die in the attempt. This raid ended in utter failure owing to the undisciplined nature of his troops and the strong opposition of Victor Emanuel's chief ministers, who did not wish things done in this rough and ready fashion. Not until he had been severely wounded by those sent out to order his return would this enthusiastic zealot allow himself to be taken prisoner, and, a little later, to retire into private life for a while.

**Venice, 1866.**—A few years later Garibaldi appeared again at the head of his volunteers in the war between Austria and Prussia in 1866. By her alliance with the victorious Prussians, Italy won over Venice to the rule of Victor Emanuel, who paid the ancient republic a State visit as her king.

**Rome.**—Rome alone still maintained her independence, and, in the following year Garibaldi visited Venice with the aim of raising such opposition against the Papal Government that the forces of young Italy would drive the Pope from the city.

The riots caused by his followers in Venice caused even his sympathisers to lose patience with him, and the French at once sent troops to protect Rome. But the bold reproof of one of the Venetian councillors touched the really sound heart of the rough-spoken old patriot, and he promised to restrain his unruly followers.

The fall of the French Empire in 1870 settled the fate of Rome. Garibaldi's rough and ready designs upon the city were stopped, and Victor Emanuel marched upon her gates. The troops of the aged Pope made a faint show of resistance, but the Royalist army was quickly in possession of the city, and by the almost unanimous vote of the people, the King of Italy was hailed as the King of Rome.

Yet such was the kindly tact of Victor Emanuel that he would not enter the Papal city with the pomp of a king, but as a private citizen.

All Italy now recognised him as her lawful sovereign. Thus the spiritual and temporal powers, so long held together by the Head of the Roman Church, became at length divided. The temporal power of the popes was at an end (1871).

## SUMMARY.—CHAPTER XLVII.

- I. *Condition of Italy, 1815-1845.*  
 Secret societies. Spirit of insurrection.  
 Revolts in Naples and Piedmont crushed by Austria.
- II. *Causes of the Revolution in 1848.*  
 (a) Influence of Mazzini. His appeal to the people. "Young Italy" started.  
 (b) Sympathy of Pope Pius IX.  
 (c) Encouragement of Charles Albert of Piedmont.  
*Results.* Naples and Rome establish constitutional government.
- III. *The Revolution, 1848.*  
 The States waver. Austria wins *Battle of Novara*, 1849.  
 Venice besieged and taken by Austria.
- IV. *Cavour.*  
 Rise of Piedmont. Aim of Cavour—the unity of the States of Italy, with Piedmont as a centre.  
 Aid of Napoleon III.  
 War with Austria, 1859.  
 Result. France and Italy successful.
- V. *Treachery of France.*  
 Peace of Villafranca. Napoleon joins Austria.  
 Savoy and Nice ceded to France.  
 Lombardy joined to Piedmont.

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### VI. *Renewed efforts of Cavour.*

Italy to work out her own salvation.

*Garibaldi* annexes Sicily and marches upon Naples.

Victor Emanuel also advances upon Naples where he is acknowledged King of Italy.

Death of Cavour, 1861.

*Garibaldi's* raids on Rome.

### VII. *The Union of Italy accomplished.*

(a) The annexation of Venice after the Austro-Prussian War, 1866.

(b) Victor Emanuel marches upon Rome after the Franco-Prussian War, 1870.

Victor Emanuel is now formally recognised as king of United Italy

### QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER XLVII.

- A* 1. What part was taken in the Unification of Italy by (a) Mazzini; (b) *Garibaldi*; (c) Cavour?
2. What events happened at these places with reference to Italy—Novara, Villafranca, Venice, Sicily, Naples?
- B* 1. Trace the successive steps by which Italy became a united nation.
2. Compare the work and character of Cavour with that of (a) Metternich; (b) *Garibaldi*.

*Read.*—"Out with *Garibaldi*" (Henty).

## CHAPTER XLVIII

### THE EASTERN QUESTION AND THE CRIMEAN WAR

1820-1855

It was generally recognised in the early part of the century that much of the unrest of Europe was due to the constantly recurring "Eastern Question." Stated very simply it amounted to this:—"What were to be the relations between the unbelieving and only partially civilised Turks, and the rest of Europe?"

The presence of so huge a mass of alien Orientals wedged in between two of the foremost powers of the Continent would alone have sufficed to make Europe uneasy and restless, but when in addition, the Greeks felt the universal stirring towards liberty, which had invaded all Europe at that era, the Christian kingdoms could but feel it was their duty to aid them in taking arms against the infidels. But for the last few years, the European powers,

for political and selfish reasons, had admitted Turkey to their alliance. Only Russia stood sternly aloof.

Meantime many causes were working together to impel Greece to cast off the yoke of her conquerors. The slackness of Turkish rule and the rapid growth of Greek maritime importance led her on. The revival of classical literature, which stirred the interests of Europe and recalled to her the great days of her past history, impelled her further.

In 1820 war was declared with Turkey.

**War of Greek Independence, 1821.**—The help of Russia had been confidently expected, but the influence of Metternich kept the Tsar back. "The affair," said the haughty Austrian diplomatist, "must be looked upon as placed beyond the pale of civilisation." Unfortunately the way in which the war was carried on almost justified the saying. Thousands of Mussulmans were massacred in cold blood, and the part played by the brigands and pirates of the Morea could not be surpassed by any Asiatic infidel. Yet such was the influence of the sentiment stirred by the appeal made to the past history and literature of Greece after the terrible retaliation taken by Turkey, when the Patriarch was hung and forty thousand Christians were massacred in one week, that from all parts money and volunteers poured into Greece. Amongst the latter was our own Lord Byron, burning to restore the freedom he held so dear, and prepared to give his life to the cause.

As the months went by the tale of atrocities grew worse and worse. The Oriental lust for bloodshed knew no bounds, and all Europe looked on in horror.

**Battle of Navarino, 1827.**—The accession of the Tsar Nicholas in 1825 threw an additional weight on the side of Greece. In 1827 the allied fleets of Russia, France and England sailed to protect the Greek coast, and utterly routed the Turks at the Battle of Navarino.

Two years later the Peace of Adrianople ended the war, and two years later still created Greece an independent kingdom under Otho, son of King Louis of Bavaria, a youth of seventeen, whose hard task it was to train a mob of brigands, pirates and herdsmen to become a civilised race (1832). This arrangement by no means settled the "Eastern Question." That is left for the future to decide.



**Crimean War.**—Twenty-two years later the scene had changed in Europe.

Turkey was now the victim of oppression at the hands of Russia. The destruction of her fleet and the massacre of her troops roused the sympathy of Austria, France and England, who were, moreover, eager to check the fast advancing power of the Eastern kingdom.

War was declared against Russia, and the allied fleets of France and England, making it their main object to destroy the Russian sea-power, attacked the strong harbour of Sebastopol in which the harassed Russian vessels could always find a refuge, and landed in the Crimea.

**Alma, 1854—Balaclava—Inkerman.**—The defence was very desperate, but the allied forces at the river Alma drove the Russians headlong and during the next few weeks won the great battles of Balaclava and Inkerman. It was at the former that the memorable charge of the Six Hundred was made. By a curious error, this band of men was sent to ride into a valley which was surrounded by the vast Russian army. Only one hundred and ninety-eight returned alive, but the incident won for England a deathless name in the annals of glory. As the cruel Russian winter came on, the Tsar remarked grimly that "Generals January and February would be his best allies," but the icy cold and frozen wastes were the cause of as much suffering to the Russians as to the English, who could at least command the sea, and receive the long delayed stores of food and clothes when they at length arrived. Sebastopol fell at length, and the Tsar, humbled and brought low, sought for terms of peace, which ensured the safety of Turkey (1855).

Since 1870, no great war has stirred the chief powers from their policy of peace as regards each other.

But the Makers of Europe are still at work ; what may be the story of her future no man can say ; yet it lies in the hands of those who in these days read the history of her past.

#### SUMMARY.—CHAPTER XLVIII.

##### I. *The Eastern Question.*

What it means. Stirrings towards liberty in Greece. Weakness of Turkish rule.

Revival of classical literature.

**II. *War of Greek Independence, 1821-1829.***

Greek and Turkish massacres.

Murder of the Patriarch of the Greek Church.

Accession of Tsar Nicholas, 1825, leads to alliance between Russia, France and England.

Battle of Navarino, 1827, won by the allies.

Peace of Adrianople.

Greece constituted an Independent kingdom under Otho of Bavaria, 1832.

**III. *Crimean War.***

*Cause*: Russian inroads and aggression.

Siege of Sebastopol. Battles of Alma, Balaclava, Inkerman. Fall of Sebastopol ends the war.

**QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER XLVIII.**

- A** 1. What is meant by the Eastern Question?  
2. What were the causes and results of—  
    (a) Greek War of Independence?  
    (b) Crimean War?
- B** 1. Briefly discuss the Eastern Question.  
    How has it been brought into prominence during the last few years?  
2. Write an account of the Crimean War.

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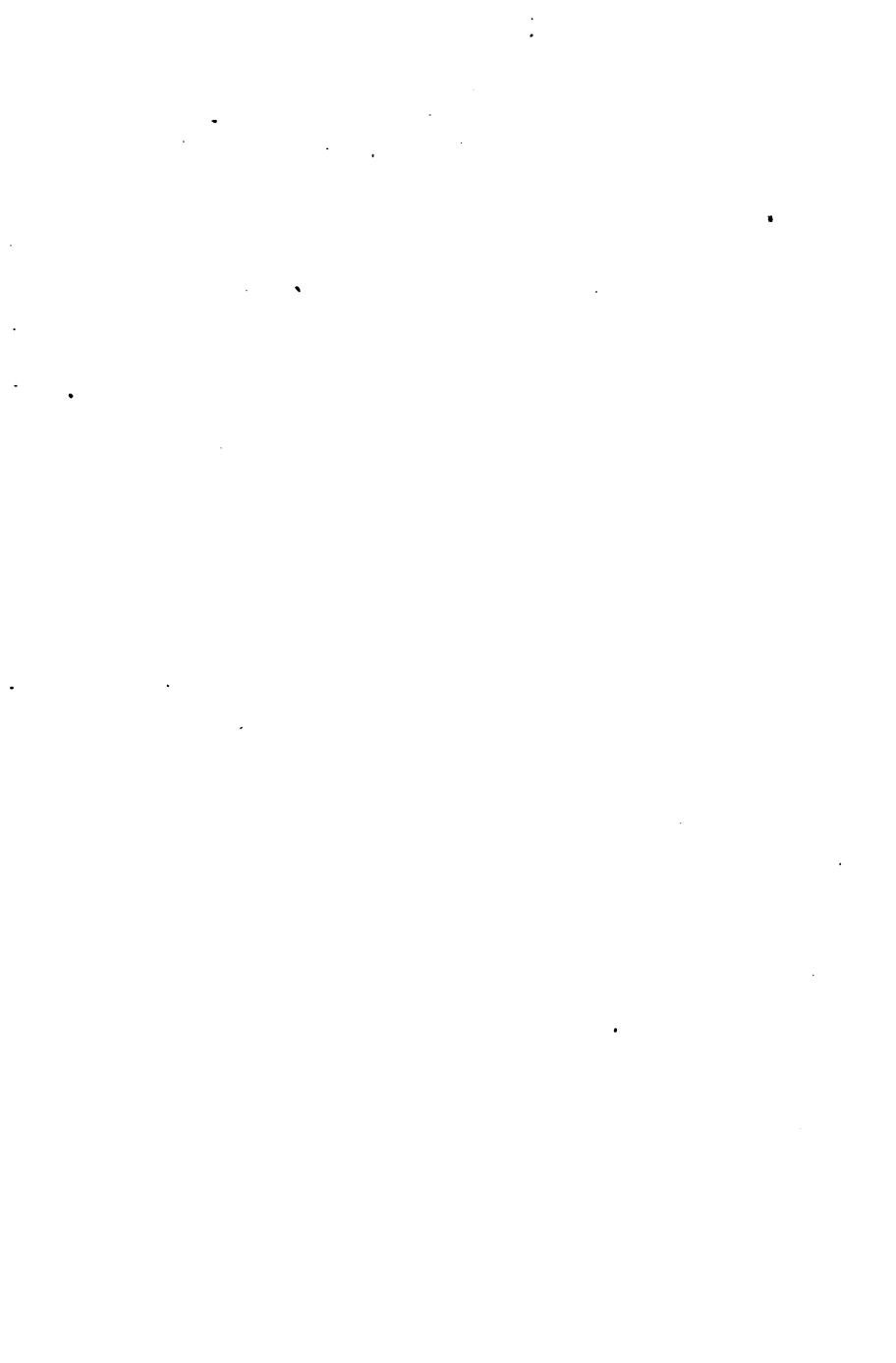
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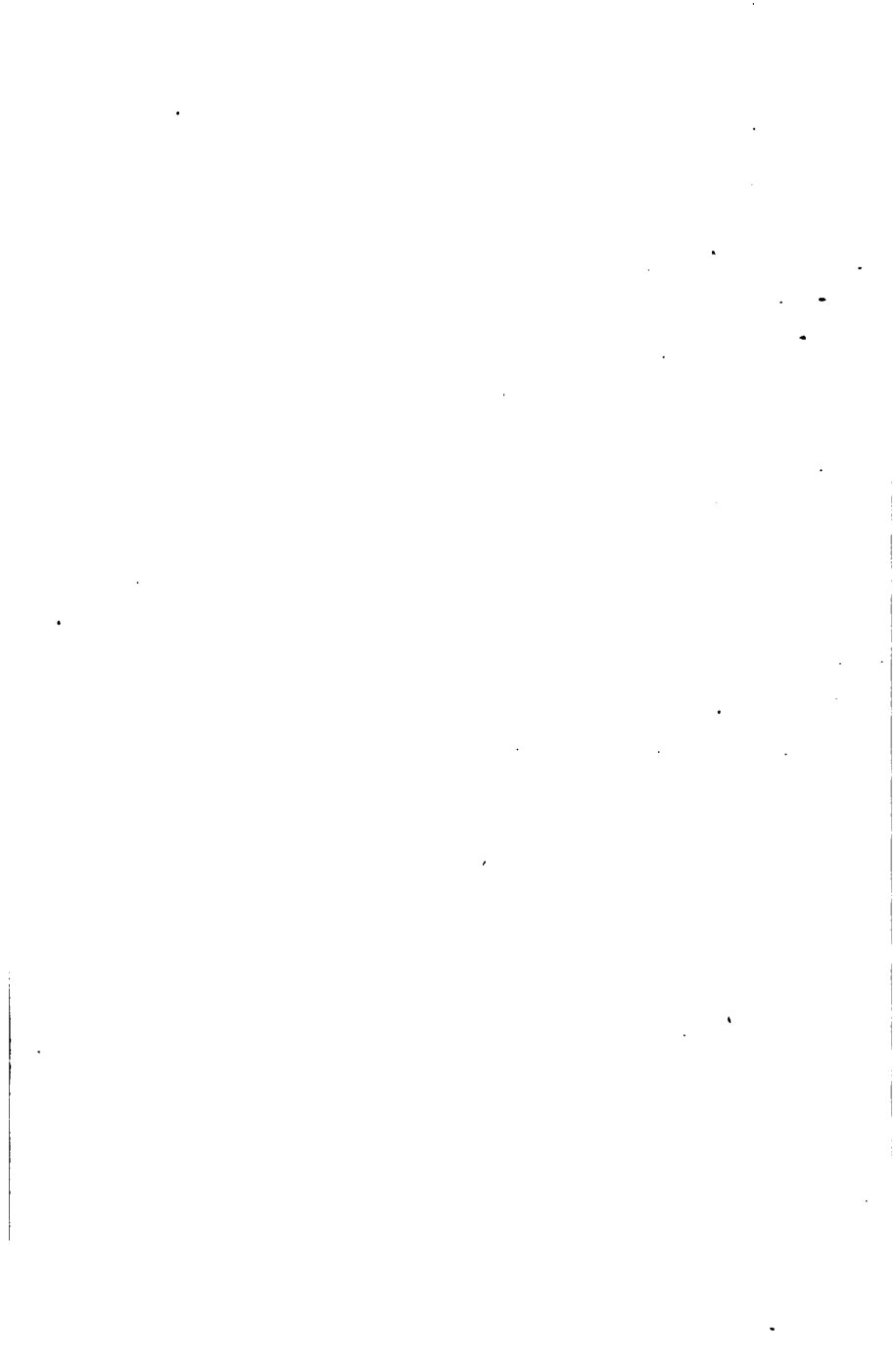
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